

COMMUNITY COLLEGE FRESHMEN'S PERCEPTIONS OF IN-CLASS FACULTY
MICROAGGRESSIONS AND THEIR INTENT TO PERSIST

by

Sandra J. Ramsay

BS, University of the West Indies

MBA, Dalhousie University

Chair

Linda S. Paslov, Ed.D.

Readers

Ioana Badara, Ph.D.

Vanessa Morest, Ph.D.

Gwendolyn Roundtree-Evans, Ed.D.

Director, Education Leadership Doctoral Program

Linda S. Paslov, Ed.D.

Director, School of Education

Allen Cook, Ph.D.

DISSERTATION

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University of Bridgeport

Committee Approval of a Dissertation

Submitted by:

Sandra J. Ramsay

I have read this dissertation and have found it to be of satisfactory quality for a doctoral degree.

Dec. 3, 2019
Date

Linda S. Paslov
Linda S. Paslov, Ed.D.
Member, Dissertation Committee

I have read this dissertation and have found it to be of satisfactory quality for a doctoral degree.

Dec. 10, 2019
Date

Ioana Badara
Ioana Badara, Ph.D.
Member, Dissertation Committee

I have read this dissertation and have found it to be of satisfactory quality for a doctoral degree.

Dec. 3, 2019
Date

Vanessa Morest
Vanessa Morest, Ph.D.
Member, Dissertation Committee

I have read this dissertation and have found it to be of satisfactory quality for a doctoral degree.

Dec. 4, 2019
Date

Gwendolyn Roundtree-Evans
Gwendolyn Roundtree-Evans, Ed.D.
Member, Dissertation Committee

I have read this dissertation and have found it to be of satisfactory quality for a doctoral degree.

Dec. 3, 2019
Date

Allen Cook
Allen Cook, Ph.D.
Member, Dissertation Committee

ABSTRACT

Faculty microaggressive behavior was reported to be pervasive in the community college classroom (Casanova, McGuire, & Martin, 2018; Suarez-Orozco et al., 2015). However, not much research focused on how community college freshmen's perceptions of faculty's microaggressive behaviors related to their intent to persist in the college environment. The study's purposes were to: (a) examine any relationship between community college freshmen's perceptions of in-class faculty racial and gender microaggressions, and their intent to persist beyond the second semester of their freshman year, (b) examine whether differences existed in the racial and gender groups' intent to persist, and in their perceptions of faculty classroom microaggressions, and (c) explore students' perceptions of their experiences with classroom faculty-student interactions. The study used a convergent mixed-methods approach to inquiry; Tinto's (1975) interactionalist model of student persistence as a theoretical foundation that has been widely validated and tested by others; and Sue's (2010) microaggression taxonomy and themes as a conceptual framework that connected ideas in the study within the theoretical framework. Surveys were administered to 311 eligible participants, and quantitative results were analyzed at a significance level of alpha .05. Qualitative data collected from three open-ended survey questions were coded for emergent themes related to faculty microaggression, using Sue (2010) as a guide, and disconfirming results were analyzed and resolved. Key results at alpha .05 included: (a) no statistically significant difference in intent to persist in the college environment for all racial and gender student groups; (b) statistically significant differences in perception of faculty in-class racial microaggression between non-White and White freshmen; (c) no statistically significant difference in perception of faculty in-class gender microaggression

between females and males; and (d) statistically significant relationships between perceived microaggression and intent to persist for Asian/Pacific Islander and female freshmen. Non-White and female participants also reported feeling demeaned and/or ignored by faculty, and White and male participants largely did not perceive faculty microaggressions. Examining coping mechanisms used to blunt the effects of perceived faculty classroom microaggressions, and supporting positive classroom environments were identified as important for student success.

Keywords: Microaggression, faculty-student interaction, college student persistence, community college persistence, mixed methods.

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my kind and generous mother Louise, who raised three girls alone, and who has always been my biggest cheerleader. Thank you for believing in me, and for always being so proud of my achievements. I would also like to dedicate this work to my children Christopher, Alyssa, and Ashley, and my husband Chris, who never let me quit, and who refused to accept my many, many excuses for why I might never get my dissertation done.

And finally, I would like to dedicate this work to Koolaid, our dog of fifteen years, who left us in August 2018. You were a constant companion and friend, and I know you were still cheering me on in doggie heaven. Rest in peace, my friend.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This convergent mixed methods research study explored the relationship between community college freshmen's perceptions of in-class racial and gender microaggressions by faculty, and their intent to persist beyond the freshman year. The study also examined whether differences existed in the racial and gender groups' intent to persist, and in their perceptions of faculty classroom microaggressions. Further, the research study also sought to understand students' perspectives of faculty classroom interactions. Community colleges tended to be commuter institutions, where most students' interactions occurred inside the classroom (Chang, 2005; Lundberg, 2014; Wirt & Jaeger, 2014). The issue of whether such in-class faculty-student interactions served to disrupt community college freshmen's persistence was therefore an important one, as prior research had shown that microaggressive behavior by faculty was pervasive in the community college classroom, with faculty most frequently undermining the intelligence and competence of students (Casanova, McGuire, & Martin, 2018; Suarez-Orozco et al., 2015). Still, the problem remained that little was known about how perceptions of in-class faculty microaggressions towards students might be related to community college freshman students' intent to persist in the college environment, as research studies exploring the relationship between these two variables was scant. The study's purposes were therefore: 1) to examine the relationship, if any, between community college freshmen's perceptions of in-class faculty racial and gender microaggressions, and their intent to persist beyond the first year, 2) determine whether statistically significant differences at alpha .05 existed in how in-class faculty microaggressions were viewed by gender and racial groups, and in their intent to persist, and 3)

explore students' perceptions of in-class interactions with faculty. The study was conducted through the theoretical lens of Tinto's (1975) interactionalist model of student persistence, and employed Sue's (2010) research on microaggression taxonomy and themes as a conceptual framework. The study was significant because it provided a critically needed look at the potential relationship between community college freshman students' perceptions of in-class faculty racial and gender microaggressions and their intent to persist, and had implications for faculty who wished to improve their classroom environments and curricular activities, and for administrators and educational leaders who made policy and practice decisions that had far-reaching implications for students.

Background of the Study

U.S. community colleges grappled with high student dropout, and had been described as dropout factories (Clark, 2012). These two-year institutions were also associated with lower attainment of educational goals (Deil-Amen & Turley, 2011; Dougherty, 1992). While many community college students enrolled with the intent of obtaining their credentials, few made progress towards completion of degrees or certificates (Goldrick-Rab, 2010). According to the National Student Clearinghouse Research Center (NSCRC), the six-year graduation rate for new fall 2011 degree/certificate-seeking students was only 37.7 percent for those who began at two-year institutions, compared to 66.7 percent at four-year schools, and the dropout rate at the two-year institutions was twice that of four-year institutions (Shapiro et al., 2017). The reasons often cited for low completion rates at community colleges were the higher percentages of low income, academically underprepared, developmental, part-time, non-traditional and minority students, who had been shown to have relatively higher dropout rates (APA, 2018; Dougherty

1992; Grimes, 1997; Martin, Galentino, & Townsend, 2014; O'Toole, Stratton, & Wetzel, 2003; Porchea, Allen, Robbins, & Phelps, 2010; Shapiro et al., 2007; Townsend & Twombly, 2007). Further, and most alarmingly, the noncompletion rate hovered at close to fifty percent for community college students even over longer time periods (Goldrick-Rab, 2010), with a large proportion (forty-eight percent) dropping out within 5 years (Porchea et al., 2010). This was not just a matter of concern for community colleges and their students, but also for taxpayers who partially funded these institutions, and for a nation that depended on having educated graduates for its workforce.

The issue of community college students' dropout, or lack of persistence, was compounded by the fact that increasing retention and completion rates for these students was both challenging and costly. Obtaining a significant increase in community college student completion rates was difficult, and would require sizeable increases in expenditure that may reduce resources available for future cohorts, especially at public colleges with funding and pricing constraints (Belfield, Crosta, & Jenkins, 2013). Nevertheless, benefits accrued to students and states through increased lifetime incomes for students of about \$30 billion more, and an additional \$5.3 billion in total taxpayer revenue for states, if community college students' dropout rate were cut in half (Schneider & Yin, 2012). With such high stakes, it was not surprising that much research had focused on community college student persistence, completion and success. Still, there had been a surprising lack of conceptual agreement on what was meant by college success (Robbins et al., 2004). One area of agreement, though, was around student-faculty interactions, with various studies citing the enhancement in students' persistence, retention, and cognition that arose from frequent and positive interactions between students and

faculty (Astin, 1993; Chang, 2005; Cotton & Wilson, 2006; Hagenauer & Volet, 2014; Kim & Lundberg, 2016; Kuh, Kinzie, Buckley, Bridges, & Hayek, 2006; Lundberg, 2014; Lundberg & Schreiner, 2004; Wirt & Jaeger, 2014). Kuh et al. (2006) noted that “Virtually everyone agrees that student-faculty interaction was an important factor in student success” (p. 34), though at least one study found no relationship between faculty interaction and student persistence (Nakajima, Dembo, & Mossier, 2012). Nakajima et al. (2012) investigated factors that were likely to influence a community college student’s decision to persist at, or drop out of, his/her institution. The authors found no significant relationship between students’ persistence and faculty interaction, though they concluded that “perceived interest by faculty—and not actual interaction—may be sufficient to influence students’ behavior” (Nakajima et al., 2012, p. 605). Nonetheless, as noted before, there was overwhelming support in the literature for the notion that positive faculty-student interactions enhanced student success (Kuh et al., 2006).

Many studies, however, revealed no significant difference between male and female students in terms of interactions with faculty (Brady & Eisler, 1999; Cornelius, 1990; Kuh & Hu, 2001; Tatum, Schwartz, Schimmoeller, & Perry, 2013), though other researchers found otherwise (Hagedorn, Rodriguez, Hocesvar, & Fillpot, 2000; Sax, Bryant, & Harper, 2005). Access to faculty was also an important issue for students of color who, like all students, preferred to interact with faculty who looked like them (Kim & Lundberg, 2016; Noel & Smith, 1996). The reality was, however, that about eighty percent of full-time professors across the United States were White (NCES, 2018). Interestingly, several studies showed that African American students (Chang, 2005; Kuh & Hu, 2001; Lundberg & Schreiner, 2004; Schreiner, 2004) and Native American students (Lundberg & Schreiner, 2004; Schreiner, 2004) were more

likely to interact with faculty than students from other racial groups. Nonetheless, these students reported having the least satisfactory relationships with faculty (Schreiner, 2004). According to Schreiner's study, faculty sometimes held lower expectations of African American and Native American students, which was often conveyed in behaviors like ignoring them in class, treating them stereotypically, and demonstrating impatience with these students' responses.

High-quality interactions with faculty, and a sense that faculty cared about them, were deeply valued by undergraduate students at all higher education institutions (Cotton & Wilson, 2006; Grantham, Robinson, & Chapman, 2015). Yet, interactions in which faculty exhibited caring and respectful behaviors towards students may not be as commonplace as one might assume (Grantham et al., 2015). Additionally, there were still significant gaps in our understanding of faculty-student interactions, and how they were associated with student outcomes (Cotton & Wilson, 2006). Faculty criticism of students' personal traits (such as calling them lazy) could serve to confirm students' feelings of academic inadequacy, leading them to view academic failure as proof that they lacked ability and aptitude (Cole, 2007; Cox, 2009). Further, according to Cotton & Wilson (2006), a student's bad experience with a faculty member could have a significant negative impact, and students frequently perceived abrupt behavior on the part of faculty as demonstrating a lack of interest in interacting with them (and not because of faculty time constraints). Race also factored significantly in faculty-student contact (Cole, 2007; Kim & Sax, 2007), and consequently, in the intellectual development of students (Cole 2007). Per Cole (2007), for non-White students who lacked significant contact with faculty, race was often the determining factor, especially when students experienced or perceived their institutions as being racially and ethnically insensitive. Further, African American female students in one

study reported having less than enjoyable in-class experiences when faculty members simply lectured, appeared to “talk down” to students, or did not demonstrate that they cared about the class (Booker, 2007). Also, improvements in intellectual and skill development for minority students were significantly greater than that of nonminority students, as their satisfaction level with faculty-student interactions increased (Eimers, 2000).

Community college students were also more likely to engage in in-class interactions with faculty members around specific course topics, and less likely to meet with instructors outside of class (Chang, 2005; Wirt & Jaeger, 2014). Additionally, when considering frequency of faculty-student interactions, engagement with peers, and student background characteristics, frequent interactions with faculty was by far the strongest predictor of community college student gains in general education, intellectual skills, science and technology, personal development, and career preparation (Lundberg, 2014). In-class faculty-student interactions at the community college level were therefore incredibly important, though higher engagement with faculty tended to occur among community college students who had grown up in the U.S. system of education, who had parents who were highly educated, and who had more positive and confident attitudes towards school (Chang, 2005). Yet, as noted earlier, community colleges enrolled larger majorities of first generation, low income, and academically underprepared students, as well as students of color, who tended to have less satisfactory interactions with faculty members (Chang, 2005; Lundberg & Schreiner, 2004).

Alarming, community college instructors themselves often held negative views of their students, perceiving them as academically inferior and lacking in motivation (Cox, 2009; Dougherty, 1992). Cox (2009) posited that some community college professors compared their

students with “an idealized portrait of the college student” (p. 5); one who showed up ready to learn, was highly motivated, took responsibility for his/her own learning, and also understood the purpose of learning. Cox (2009) further argued that the image of the traditional, full-time student was an outdated one, though it continued to be “compelling and persistent” (p. 7). Contemporary community college students were, however, far from traditional: the majority worked while enrolled in college (62% of full-time and 72% of part-time students), attended college part-time (63% of credit enrollees), and were racial/ethnic minorities (54%); with 29% being first generation college students, 15% being single parents, and 20% being students with disabilities (AACC, 2019). There was often therefore a disconnect between community college faculty’s expectations of students, and students’ actual performance (Cox, 2009).

Community college faculty who held negative views of their students tended to offer these students less academic encouragement, to focus only on a few good students while mostly giving up on the rest, and to have low expectations of their students (Dougherty 1992; Suarez-Orozco et al., 2015). In other words, faculty sometimes acted in microaggressive ways towards community college students. Pierce, Carew, Pierce-Gonzalez, and Wills (1978) described microaggressions as “subtle, stunning, often automatic, and nonverbal exchanges” (p. 62) that served to put down marginalized groups. It was disturbing that on community college campuses that served mostly racial and ethnic minority students, faculty were more likely to engage in behaviors that mostly undermined the intelligence of students, and that also disparaged students’ assumed cultural backgrounds and reinforced negative gender stereotypes; i.e., in microaggressive behavior (Casanova, McGuire, & Martin, 2018; Suarez-Orozco et al., 2015). Still, study after study confirmed what we instinctively knew to be true of faculty-student

interactions at community colleges: community college students were more likely to benefit from such interactions with faculty when they felt welcomed, known, encouraged, mentored, validated, and supported by their faculty members (Deil-Amen & Turley, 2011; Lundberg, 2014; Wirt & Jaeger, 2014).

Furthermore, most studies on faculty-student interaction had focused on that which occurred informally or outside the classroom (Grantham et al., 2015; Wirt & Jaeger, 2014), and at four-year institutions (Chang 2005; Wirt & Jaeger, 2014). Since community colleges tended to be commuter institutions, however, it stood to reason that in-class interactions between faculty and students were particularly important, as most community college students seldom engaged in social forms of involvement, with the classroom being the main point of contact with the college (Chang, 2005; Lundberg, 2014; McClenney & Peterson, 2006; Wirt & Jaeger, 2014).

Additionally, the issue of whether students' perceptions of such in-class faculty-student interactions served to disrupt community college student persistence was an important one, as prior research had shown that microaggressive behavior by faculty was pervasive in the community college classroom, with faculty most frequently undermining the intelligence and competence of students (Casanova et al., 2018; Suarez-Orozco et al., 2015).

This study examined whether community college freshmen's perceptions of in-class faculty racial and gender microaggressions directed at students were related to their intent to persist, whether statistically significant differences at alpha .05 existed in how in-class faculty microaggressions were perceived by gender and racial groups, and whether statistically significant differences at alpha .05 existed among racial and gender groups in terms of their

intent to persist. The study also explored freshman community college students' perceptions of their experiences with classroom faculty-student interactions.

Problem Statement

Not much was known about how what was taking place inside community college classrooms in terms of faculty-student interactions might be influencing community college students' intent to persist, as prior research had tended to largely focus on outside-class or informal faculty-student interactions (Grantham et al., 2015; Wirt & Jaeger, 2014). In addition, most studies had been conducted using either a quantitative or a qualitative research approach, though a more comprehensive understanding of the problem could be obtained by comparing and synthesizing quantitative and qualitative data. Furthermore, studies had shown that positive faculty-student interactions were critical to community college student success (Chang, 2005; Lundberg, 2014; Wirt & Jaeger, 2014). However, research on the effect of in-class faculty racial and gender microaggressions on student outcomes at the community college level was scant, with minimal research found to date that examined how community college students' perceptions of such microaggressive, in-class faculty behavior might be related to their intent to persist beyond the spring semester of their freshman year. Unless we explored how students' perceptions of in-class faculty-student interactions that involved microaggressive behavior on the part of faculty might be related to community college freshmen's intent to persist, and sought to understand how students described their perceptions of interactions with faculty inside the classroom, we could be inadvertently perpetuating, through ignorance and lack of will on our part, a student dropout cycle that has implications for the students themselves, as well as for the institution, the local community, and the nation.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to first examine the relationship, if any, between community college freshmen's perceptions of in-class faculty racial and gender microaggressions directed at students, and their intent to persist; and, whether differences existed in the racial and gender groups' intent to persist at the community college, and in their perceptions of classroom racial and gender microaggressions by faculty. The study also explored community college freshmen's perceptions of their experiences with classroom faculty-student interactions, using a convergent mixed-methods approach to inquiry. Such approach allowed the researcher to answer the research questions from a pragmatic perspective, which focused on the research problem, and that used all available resources to understand the problem (Creswell, 2013). The convergent mixed-methods design was selected because the researcher wished to get a complete understanding of the research problem through combining the strengths and weaknesses of quantitative and qualitative approaches (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). For the purpose of this study, a community college freshman student's intent to persist was measured using the Institutional Commitment (IC) and Degree Commitment (DC) sub-scales of the College Persistence Questionnaire (CPQ/CPQ-V2) that aimed at predicting student persistence or attrition—i.e., whether the student returned to his/her institution for the second year (Beck & Davidson, 2010; Davidson et al., 2009). Total IC/DC scores ranged from -20 to +20. (See Appendix F for the IC and DC subscales of the CPQ/CPQ-V2.) Further, the researcher only considered racial and gender microaggressions, and also sought to determine whether differences existed in how in-class faculty microaggressions were experienced by distinct gender and racial groups.

A third purpose of the study was to discover implications for practice for faculty, educational leaders, and other practitioners. Significant relationships (at $\alpha = .05$) that were found to exist between freshman students' perceptions of in-class faculty racial and gender microaggressions and their intent to persist, could be informative for faculty and educational leaders. It is important that professionals in open-access, community college institutions be provided with the knowledge and support they needed to identify and disrupt in-class faculty microaggressive behaviors that might have implications for community college students' intent to persist. Administrators might also use the information to make improvements in the way in which they supported positive interactions in the classrooms. Professors, for their part, might use the findings to enhance in-class faculty-student interactions, as well as to broaden their teaching methods and course contents to reflect multiple perspectives that fostered welcoming and supportive class environments, and that sought to minimize microaggressive behaviors in community college classrooms.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This convergent mixed methods research study was designed to investigate the relationship, at a significance level of alpha .05, between community college freshman students' perceptions of in-class faculty racial or gender microaggression, and their intent to persist beyond their freshman year; to determine whether differences existed in these students' perceptions of faculty in-class racial and gender microaggressions and in their intent to persist; as well as to explore how students perceived their experiences while interacting in the classroom with faculty. This research used Sue's (2010) definition of microaggression as: "brief and commonplace daily verbal, behavioral, and environmental indignities, whether intentional or

unintentional, that communicate hostile, derogatory, or negative racial, gender, sexual orientation, and religious slights and insults to the target person or group” (p. 5). A microaggression could take the form of a microassault, a microinsult, or a microinvalidation (Sue et al., 2007), and could lead to hostile and invalidating academic environments (Suarez-Orozco et al., 2015).

Tinto’s (1975) theory postulated that students who were not academically integrated into the higher education institution were more likely to drop out; i.e., not persist. In addition, the quality of the faculty-student interaction was also related to student persistence and dropout (Tinto, 1975). Using Tinto’s (1975) theory as a framework, this study explored the results that emerged from comparing and synthesizing the quantitative data with the exploratory qualitative data about community college freshmen’s perceptions of their classroom faculty-student interactions. The first set of quantitative research questions examined whether there were differences in intent to persist, and perceptions of faculty classroom microaggression, for the different racial and gender groups:

1. Is there a statistically significant difference between the intent to persist of non-White community college freshmen and White community college freshmen, at a significance level of alpha .05?
2. Is there a statistically significant difference between the intent to persist of female community college freshmen and male community college freshmen, at a significance level of alpha .05?
3. Is intent to persist statistically significantly different for community college freshmen of different races, by individual racial groups, at a significance level of alpha .05?

4. Is there a statistically significant difference between non-White community college freshmen's overall perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and that of White community college freshmen, at a significance level of alpha .05?
5. Is perception of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom statistically significantly different for community college freshmen of different races, by individual racial groups, at a significance level of alpha .05?
6. Is there a statistically significant difference between female community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and that of male community college freshmen, at a significance level of alpha .05?

The second set of quantitative research questions examined relationships between intent to persist, and community college freshmen's perceptions of faculty classroom microaggressions:

7. What is the relationship between White community college freshmen's perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom and their intent to persist at the community college, at a significance level of alpha .05?
8. What is the relationship between non-White community college freshmen's overall perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom and their intent to persist at the community college, at a significance level of alpha .05?
9. What is the relationship between non-White community college freshmen's perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom and their intent

to persist at the community college, by individual racial groups, at a significance level of alpha .05?

10. What is the relationship between female community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and their intent to persist at the community college, at a significance level of alpha .05?

11. What is the relationship between male community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and their intent to persist at the community college, at a significance level of alpha .05?

As such, the following null hypotheses were tested at a significance level of alpha .05:

- #1. H_{01} : There is no statistically significant difference at alpha .05 between the intent to persist, as measured by STIP, of non-White community college freshmen and White community college freshmen.
- #2. H_{02} : There is no statistically significant difference at alpha .05 between the intent to persist, as measured by STIP, of female community college freshmen and male community college freshmen.
- #3. H_{03} : Intent to persist, as measured by STIP, is not statistically significantly different at alpha .05 for community college freshmen of different races, by individual racial groups.
- #4. H_{04} : There is no statistically significant difference at alpha .05 between non-White community college freshmen's overall perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and White community college freshmen's perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFREM.

- #5. H₀₅: Perception of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFREM, is not statistically significantly different at alpha .05 for community college freshmen of different races, by individual racial groups.
- #6. H₀₆: There is no statistically significant difference at alpha .05 between female community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and male community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFGM.
- #7. H₀₇: There is no statistically significant relationship at alpha .05 between White community college freshmen's perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFREM, and their intent to persist at the community college, as measured by STIP.
- #8. H₀₈: There is no statistically significant relationship at alpha .05 between non-White community college freshmen's overall perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFREM, and their intent to persist at the community college, as measured by STIP.
- #9. H₀₉: There is no statistically significant relationship at alpha .05 between non-White community college freshmen's perceptions, by individual racial groups, of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFREM, and their intent to persist at the community college, as measured by STIP.
- #10. H₀₁₀: There is no statistically significant relationship at alpha .05 between female community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the

community college classroom, as measured by CFGM, and their intent to persist at the community college, as measured by STIP.

- #11. H₀₁₁: There is no statistically significant relationship at alpha .05 between male community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFGM, and their intent to persist at the community college, as measured by STIP.

Further, the qualitative research question was:

1. What are freshmen community college students' perceptions of in-class interactions with faculty, based on the students' race and gender?

Theoretical Foundation

Tinto's (1975) interactionalist model of student persistence, from which much major research on college student persistence stemmed, served as the theoretical framework for this research. A theoretical framework arises from generally acceptable existing theories that had been validated and tested by others (Grant & Osanloo, 2014). Tinto's (1975) theory related (a) student entry characteristics, (b) goal commitment—initial and subsequent, (c) integration—academic and social, and (d) institutional commitment—initial and subsequent, to the outcome of persistence. Tinto (1975) posited that, with unchanging external conditions assumed, dropouts resulted from students' experiences with the academic and social systems of a college, which caused them to reevaluate and modify (if necessary) their goal of completing college. Per Tinto, academic integration occurred when the student became integrated into the academic

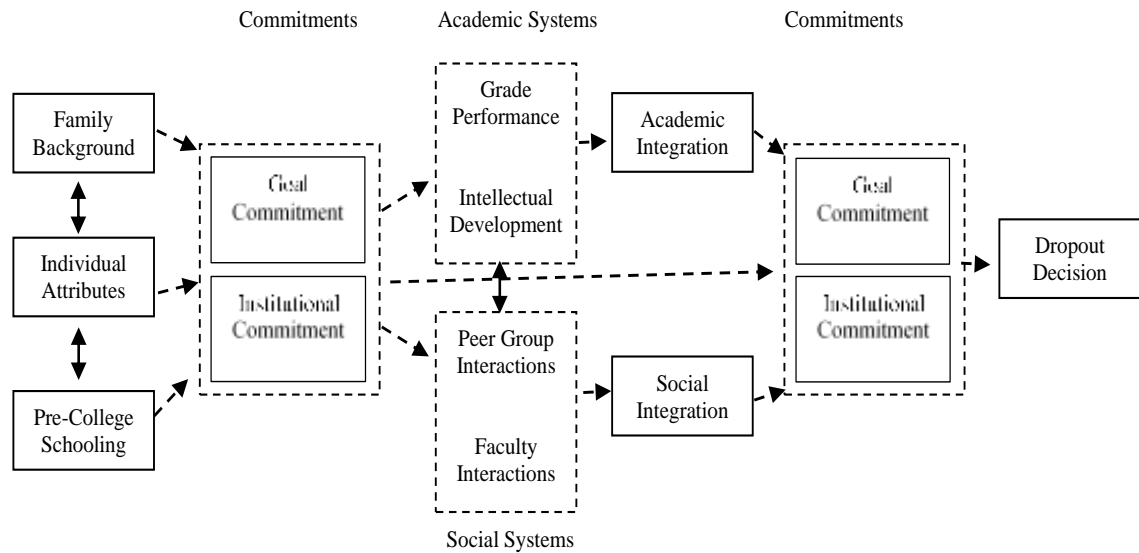


Figure 1. Tinto's (1975) Interactionalist Model of Student Persistence. The figure illustrates that students arrive at college with various family backgrounds, individual attributes and pre-college experiences which lead to initial commitments to the goal of graduation and to the institution. The model hypothesizes that students' subsequent interactions with the institution's academic and social systems affect their integration: the greater the integration, the greater the students' commitment to the institution and to their goal of graduating from college. "Dropout from Higher Education: A Theoretical Synthesis of Recent Research," by V. Tinto, 1975, *Review of Educational Research*, 45(1), pp. 89-125. Copyright 1975 © SAGE Publications. Reproduced with permission.

systems of his or her higher education institution, and could be measured in terms of grade performance (meeting explicit standards of the academic system), and a student's intellectual development (identifying with the norms of the academic system) during his/her years in college. Also, a student's academic integration involved varying normative and structural integration levels; failure to academically integrate could cause the student to drop out of the institution because of either insufficient intellectual development, or insufficient congruency between his/her intellectual development, and that which was the norm for the academic system's climate. Figure 1 illustrates Tinto's (1975) interactionalist model of student persistence. (Refer to Appendix G for permission from the publisher to reuse the content in a doctoral dissertation.)

Further, per Tinto (1975), social interaction occurred between the student, with his/her own background, traits, values, etc., and other individuals with varying backgrounds and characteristics. As such, social integration—like academic integration—also involved levels of integration, and degrees of congruency between the individual and his/her social environment. Tinto posited that social integration could occur informally with peers, semi-formally through extracurricular activities, and formally through interactions with college faculty, staff, and administrators. Some researchers argued that, since the majority of faculty-student interactions at the community college occurred inside the classroom, the concepts of academic integration and social integration were not separate, but were best represented as socio-academic integration (Deil-Amen, 2005; Karp, Hughes, & O’Gara, 2008).

Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework “offers a logical structure of connected concepts that help provide a picture or visual display of how ideas in a study relate to one another within the theoretical framework” (Grant & Osanloo, 2014, p. 17). Many studies on classroom microaggression employed Sue’s (2010) or Sue et al.’s (2007) conceptual framework on microaggressions. For example, in a study that explored racial microaggressions and difficult dialogues on race in the classroom, Sue, Capodilupo, and Rivera (2009) developed an interview protocol from previous research around the concepts of difficult dialogues and racial microaggressions, to gain an understanding of the kinds of student-to-student and student-to-instructor interactions that occurred in such situations. Faculty microaggressive behavior in the classroom could take the form of a microassault, a microinsult, or a microinvalidation (Sue, 2010). Common, but offensive, communication themes for students of color, and female

students, included but were not limited to: (a) ascription of intellectual inferiority, (b) second-class citizenship/assumption of inferior status, (c) assumed superiority of White/male cultural values/communication styles, (d) myth of meritocracy, (e) sexual objectification, (f) traditional gender role stereotyping, (g) use of sexist language, (h) criminality/assumption of criminal status, (i) denial of racial reality, and (j) denial of the reality of sexism (Sue, 2010). These themes could be communicated through verbal, nonverbal/behavioral, or environmental mediums (e.g. an educational curriculum that offered only a White and/or male perspective). Taken together, Sue's (2010) microaggression taxonomy and themes served as a conceptual framework for this research study, and helped inform the selection of survey instruments, the development of open-ended survey questions, and the coding of the qualitative data.

Nature of the Study

This study employed a convergent mixed-methods approach to inquiry in order to answer the research questions from a pragmatic perspective, which focused on the research problem and that used all available resources to understand the problem (Creswell, 2013). The convergent mixed-methods design was selected because the researcher wished to get a complete understanding of the research problem, through combining the strengths and weaknesses of quantitative and qualitative approaches (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Previous studies had also confirmed the predictive validity of Tinto's (1975) interactionalist model of student persistence, when applied to student dropout behavior for all institutional types (Halpin, 1990; Pascarella & Chapman, 1983). Specifically, Halpin (1990) found that Tinto's (1975) model predicted persistence or exit outcomes for community college students, and Pascarella and

Chapman (1983) found that Tinto's (1975) model had predictive validity for all the institutional types: four-year residential, four-year commuter, and two-year commuter.

In this research, the variables were community college freshmen's perceptions of faculty racial and gender microaggressive behaviors in the classroom, and their intent to persist beyond the spring semester of their first year, which was measured using the IC/DC subscales of the CPQ/CPQ-V2 (Beck & Davidson, 2010; Davidson et al., 2009). Information pertaining to the freshman students' perceptions of in-class faculty-student interactions (with a focus on the existence of microaggression episodes), was collected via survey instruments from among freshman community college students who started at the community college the previous fall semester, and who were enrolled full-time during the spring term. Only about six out of ten community college students who begin in the fall term return the following fall semester without transferring to another institution; in other words, about 40 percent drop out of the community college after their first year (NSC, 2017). Participants completed: (a) a Demographic Survey, which was constructed for this study only, and which collected basic demographic data that included participants' race and gender; (b) the Institutional Commitment and Degree Commitment subscales of the College Persistence Questionnaire (CPQ/CPQ-V2), which were developed and validated by Davidson et al. (2009) and Beck and Davidson (2010), and that were used to measure intent to persist (Appendix F); (c) the Classroom-Based Racial and Ethnic Microaggression (CB-REMA) Scale, a modified version of the School-Based Racial and Ethnic Microaggression Scale (SB-REMA), in which the word 'campus' was replaced by 'classroom' for the purposes of this study only. This instrument was used to measure participants' perceptions of faculty racial microaggression in the community college classroom (Appendix C);

(d) the Microaggression Against Women in the Classroom (MAWS-C) Scale, a modified version of the Microaggression Against Women Scale (MAWS), in which the word ‘therapist’ was replaced with ‘professor’ for the purposes of this study only. This instrument was used to measure participants’ perceptions of faculty gender microaggression in the community college classroom (Appendix E); (e) the School-Based Racial and Ethnic Microaggression Scale (SB-REMA), which was developed and validated by Keels, Durkee, and Hope (2017) to measure students’ experiences with school-based racial and ethnic microaggressions (Appendix B); (f) the Microaggression Against Women Scale (MAWS), which was developed and validated by Owen, Tao, and Rodolfa (2010) to measure microaggressions against women in counseling (Appendix D); and (g) a brief three-question Faculty-Student Interaction Open-Ended Survey that was constructed for this study only, in which student participants were asked to provide optional responses to three open-ended questions at the end, so as to capture “multiple facets of a phenomenon from each participant” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 189) through one data source. Furthermore, since there were currently no known instruments for measuring faculty racial and gender microaggressions in the classroom, construct validity tests were conducted on the modified Classroom-Based Racial and Ethnic Microaggression (CB-REMA) Scale and the modified Microaggressions Against Women in the Classroom (MAWS-C) Scale, by examining the relationship between student scores on the CB-REMA and the SB-REMA (Keels et al., 2017), and the MAWS-C and the MAWS (Owen et al., 2010).

The results of this research were interpreted according to the research questions, and as guided by Tinto’s (1975) model on student persistence, and Sue’s (2010) work on the concept of microaggression. Specifically, the results of the research added to our knowledge of how in-class

faculty microaggressive behaviors were related to community college freshmen's intent to persist, in keeping with Tinto's theory that the quality of faculty-student interactions will influence students' decisions to stay in, or drop out of, college. Quantitative data analysis was conducted using SPSS at alpha .05, and data were analyzed and interpreted using descriptive and inferential statistics. Qualitative data were analyzed and coded for emerging categories and themes that aligned with Tinto's (1975) theory on why students dropped out from higher education institutions, and informed by Sue's (2010) microaggression taxonomy and themes.

Definitions

The following terms were used throughout the study. For clarity and consistency purposes, the definitions of the terms are provided below.

Community college. Community colleges were publicly funded two-year open access institutions of higher education that began almost 100 years ago with the creation of Joliet Junior College in Illinois. The institutions typically offered two-year degrees and certificates (AACC, 2018).

Classroom. A physical space in a traditional brick-and-mortar building where faculty and students met for instructional and academic purposes.

Faculty-student interaction. Faculty-student interaction in the classroom occurred in various ways, such as when faculty lectured, when they asked general questions of the class or directed questions to individual students, and/or when faculty expanded on a student's comment or asked a follow-up question (Cornelius, 1990). For their part, students interacted with faculty by asking questions, responding to a faculty member's general questions, responding to an instructor's question directed at them individually, and otherwise engaging with faculty inside

the classroom (Cornelius). The terms ‘faculty-student interaction’ and ‘student-faculty interaction’ were one and the same, and were therefore used interchangeably in this study.

Microaggression. This research employed Sue’s (2010) definition of microaggression as: “brief and commonplace daily verbal, behavioral, and environmental indignities, whether intentional or unintentional, that communicate hostile, derogatory, or negative racial, gender, sexual orientation, and religious slights and insults to the target person or group” (p. 5). Sue et al. (2007) developed a taxonomy of everyday microaggressions, identifying three major forms: (a) *microassault*—explicit, violent and often conscious verbal and/or nonverbal attacks, (b) *microinsult*—rude, demeaning, and often unconscious communications, and (c) *microinvalidation*—often unconscious communications that served to exclude, negate or nullify a person’s thoughts, feelings or experiences.

Gender microaggression. The theoretical definition of the concept used in this study was microaggression directed towards women that communicated overt and covert messages towards them about their identities and place in society, and that reinforced stereotypes about women, messages regarding women being lesser than men, traditional sex roles, and sexual objectification of women (Sue, 2010). The concept was operationalized by using the variable CFGM, which was used to assess community college freshman students’ perceptions of in-class faculty gender microaggressions, and which was calculated using the total score from participants’ responses on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = “strongly disagree”, 2 = “disagree”, 3 = “neutral”, 4 = “agree”, 5 = “strongly agree”).

In-class faculty microaggression. Faculty-student interaction that occurred in the classroom, in which the faculty member engaged in microaggressive behavior, or directed

microaggressive language toward the student(s). The language or behavior could take the form of a microassault, microinsult, or microinvalidation. In all three forms, the perpetrator (faculty) might demonstrate awareness or intentionality in varying degrees; nevertheless, offensive messages and meanings were still communicated to the (student) recipients (Sue et al., 2007).

Racial microaggressions. The theoretical definition of the concept used in this study was microaggressions directed towards people of color that communicated overt and covert messages towards them about their identities and place in society, and that reinforced negative stereotypes and messages regarding people of color being inferior, criminal, sub-human, one and the same, invisible, and so on (Sue, 2010). The concept was operationalized by using the variable CFREM, which was used to assess community college freshman students' perceptions of in-class faculty racial microaggressions, and which was calculated using the total scores from participants' responses on a 3-point Likert scale (1 = "never", 2 = "sometimes", 3 = "regularly").

Student intent to persist. Intent to persist referred to freshman students' intent to return to the college after the spring semester of their first year, and for the following fall semester. The concept was operationalized by using the variable STIP, which was calculated using participants' total scores on the Institutional Commitment (IC) and Degree Commitment (DC) subscales of the College Persistence Questionnaire (Beck & Davidson, 2010; Davidson et al., 2009).

Scope and Delimitations

Faculty-student interactions could be formal or informal, occurring inside and outside the classroom (Bean 1985; Cotton & Wilson, 2006; Endo & Harpel, 1982; Lamport, 1993). This study was limited to the faculty-student interactions that took place inside the college classroom,

Table 1

Research Study: Scope and Delimitations

What was studied?	faculty-student interactions that took place inside the community college classroom, and whether faculty's words and/or actions directed towards the students were perceived by community college freshman as indicating racial and gender-based microaggressions.
Why was it studied?	because not much was known about how in-class faculty microaggressions might be related to community college students' intent to persist, though studies have shown that positive faculty-student interactions were critical to community college student success.
Who was studied?	freshman community college students and faculty, and these students' perceptions of their classroom interactions with faculty.
Where was it studied?	at the community college.
When was it studied?	during the spring semester of community college students' freshman year.

and specifically at the community college level, since most studies on college classroom interactions had been conducted at four-year institutions (Chang 2005; Wirt & Jaeger, 2014). In addition, the research study considered gender-based and race-based microaggressions, although microaggressions could be based on race, ethnicity, culture, nationality, gender, sexual orientation, religion, mental disability or illness, physical disability, and age generation (Berk, 2017). The study was further limited to exploring the existence of faculty as aggressors, though student-to-student acts of bias and microaggression were also possible inside the college classroom (Diaz-Espinoza, 2015; Marcus et al., 2003). Also, though Sue (2010) described a microaggression process model (from the microaggressive act, to the victim's immediate reaction, to the perpetrator's subsequent response), this study was limited in scope to identifying

faculty acts of microaggression, and freshman students' perceptions of such classroom interactions with faculty. In other words, these students' reactions and coping strategies, along with the aggressors' subsequent responses, were not studied. Lastly, the study was limited to community college students who began at the college in the fall semester just prior to the spring semester of the study, and who were in their second semester at the community college. Table 1 summarizes the scope and delimitations of the research project.

Limitations

The first limitation of the study occurred with the sampling design. According to Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2000), the four key components of a sampling design were: (a) the sample size, (b) the representativeness and parameters of the sample, (c) access to the sample, and (d) the sampling strategy to be used. For the purposes of this study, data were collected from a single, medium-sized community college in the Northeast, which made it difficult to generalize from the findings. However, such design allowed for relative ease of access to study participants, which was an important consideration for a single researcher with limited time and resources. As noted by Cohen et al. (2000), a researcher should always be mindful of the "purposes of the research, the time scales and constraints on the research, the methods of data collection, and the methodology of the research" (p. 104). In other words, it should meet the 'fitness of purpose' criterion. To improve generalizability of the findings to the population from which the sample was drawn, a large enough sample size of 311 participants was obtained. The population being studied consisted of 955 first-time, full-time freshman students who started at the community college the previous fall semester, and who were enrolled at the community college during the spring term of the study. Hence, it was determined that a minimum sample size of 274

participants was necessary (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970). The researcher used convenience sampling to obtain 311 eligible participants for this study—more than the minimum number required, and representing 32.6% of the total population being studied.

Another limitation of the study rested in how data were analyzed, and how the relationship between perceptions of faculty racial and gender microaggressive behavior and community college student intent to persist was examined. Perceptions of faculty classroom racial microaggression (CFREM), perceptions of faculty classroom gender microaggression (CFGM), and community college freshmen's intent to persist (STIP) were theoretical concepts that were respectively operationally analyzed using, as instruments, the CB-REMA, which was a modified form of the SB-REMA (Keels et al., 2017); the MAWS-C, which was a modified form of the MAWS (Owen et al., 2010); and the IC/DC subscales of the CPQ/CPQ-V2 (Beck & Davidson, 2010; Davidson et al., 2009). The CB-REMA was used to gauge participants' reported experiences with faculty in-class racial microaggression, the MAWS-C was used to measure reported levels of faculty in-class gender microaggression, and the CPQ/CPQ-V2 was used to determine whether students intended to persist in the college environment. The indication of a relationship between CFREM/CFGM and STIP could provide a useful starting point for future studies on the topic of perceptions of in-class faculty microaggressions, and community college student outcomes.

A third limitation was that the measures used in this study collected self-reported, retrospective data from student participants, thus relying on the students' memories of their classroom interactions with faculty. According to Wong, Derthick, David, Saw, and Okazaki (2014), collecting retrospective data made it “difficult to determine the proximal effects of

microaggression” (p. 191). In spite of this, however, the College Persistence Questionnaire (CPQ/CPQ-V2), and the Institutional Commitment (IC) and Degree Commitment (DC) subscales that were used to gauge participants’ intent to persist or to drop out, have been shown to have predictive validity and incremental predictive validity (Beck & Davidson, 2010; Davidson et al., 2009). Davidson et al. (2009) assessed validity using a direct logistic regression, and found that the CPQ had predictive validity [$\chi^2(6, N = 257) = 38.03, p < .001$, Nagelkerke $R^2 = .19$], with retention as the outcome and the predictors being the mean scores on the six CPQ factors. The CPQ also produced a statistically significant increment in the model’s ability to predict retention [$\chi^2(6, N = 257) = 31.56, p < .001$], when compared against a model that used high school rank and standardized SAT/ACT test scores alone [$\chi^2(2, N = 257) = 17.22, p < .001$]. Additionally, Institutional Commitment was found to be the single best and most reliable predictor of retention [$\chi^2(1, N = 257) = 16.79, p < .001$]; and Institutional Commitment and Degree Commitment scores were found to be fairly stable over time when test-retest data were collected across a five-week interval ($r = .78, p < .0001$, and $r = .67, p < .0001$ respectively).

Furthermore, the SB-REMA and MAWS on which the CB-REMA and MAWS-C were based, have been both tested and validated in other studies (Keels et al., 2017; Owen et al., 2010). Keel et al.’s (2017) confirmatory factor analysis of their three-factor solution, using Wave 3 data, indicated a close fit, $\chi^2(68) = 137, p < .001$, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .050, 90% CI [.038, .062]. Also, the goodness of fit for Black, Latinx, female, and male students was also good, with high internal reliability at both Wave 1 for Academic Inferiority (Black students $\alpha = .92$; Latinx students $\alpha = .92$), and Wave 3 (Black students $\alpha = .92$; Latinx students $\alpha = .92$); strong internal reliability at both Wave 1 for Expectations of

Aggression (Black students $\alpha = .80$; Latinx students $\alpha = .82$), and Wave 3 (Black students $\alpha = .78$; Latinx students $\alpha = .88$); and moderate internal reliability at both Wave 1 for Stereotypical Misrepresentations (Black students $\alpha = .78$; Latinx students $\alpha = .77$), and Wave 3 (Black students $\alpha = .71$; Latinx students $\alpha = .74$). Additionally, Owen et al. (2010) conducted latent class factor analysis, which resulted in a one-factor model containing seven items with factor loadings greater than .40 (Cronbach's alpha = .75).

In spite of these limitations, however, this research study made an important contribution to existing literature, as there was scant prior research that sought to examine the relationship between community college faculty racial and gender microaggressions in the classroom, and freshman community college students' intent to persist.

Significance of the Study

As noted before, this study of community college freshman students' perceptions of in-class faculty microaggressions and their intent to persist was among the first of its kind. The study was significant as it added to our understanding of the relationship between in-class faculty-student interactions at the community college level—especially as it related to faculty microaggressive behavior—and freshman students' intent to persist, and helped increase faculty awareness of the critical role they played in community college student success. There was undoubtedly overwhelming support in the literature for the notion that positive faculty-student interactions enhanced community college students' persistence, retention, and cognition, and that negative interactions had the opposite effect (e.g. Chang, 2005; Cox, 2009; Dougherty, 1992; Lundberg, 2014; Wirt & Jaeger, 2014). When these students interacted with welcoming, supportive, and inclusive faculty members, they were likely to become more academically and

socially integrated into the college, as most interactions with faculty for community college students took place inside the college classroom (Chang, 2005; Lundberg, 2014; McClenney & Peterson, 2006; Wirt & Jaeger, 2014). These results were especially true for African American and Native American students, who tended to have higher levels of faculty-student interactions, but lower levels of satisfaction with faculty (Chang, 2005). Raising faculty awareness on how their words and acts of microaggression inside the classroom, however unintended they may be, could have deleterious effects on these students' mental, physical, and emotional health, could go a long way in ensuring that the hostilities that these students faced on a daily basis in larger society did not spill over into classroom environments. Classrooms should be safe spaces for all students, regardless of race, gender, religion, sexual orientation, disability status, and so on.

Also, as previously noted, few studies were conducted inside the community college classroom (Grantham et al., 2015; Wirt & Jaeger, 2014). The study also provided us with insight on how community college students perceived and interpreted in-class interactions with faculty, and how such interactions could also be understood in the context of Sue's (2010) microaggression themes and taxonomy. Exploring such relationships also added to the literature, and enhanced our understanding of the link between students' perceptions of in-class faculty-student interactions, and community college freshman student outcomes. Additionally, by bringing the issue of in-class faculty microaggressions to the forefront, the researcher helped make the 'invisible' visible, lending support and research to community college students' experiences with faculty racial and gender microaggressions that they (the students) may not necessarily be able to articulate for themselves. Furthermore, this study was significant because it used a convergent mixed methods design that provided a more complete understanding of the

research problem, by combining the strengths of quantitative and qualitative research approaches.

Significance to Theory

The study helped fill in knowledge gaps in the field, as not much was known about faculty-student interactions that involved microaggressive behavior on the part of the faculty member within the context of the classroom environment, and how such interactions were related to community college persistence and attrition. The study also served to link well-established theories like Tinto's (1975) interactionalist model of student persistence, with Sue's (2010) more recent work on racial and gender microaggressions, thus pointing the way toward future research that connected the concept of microaggressions with established student persistence theories.

Significance to Practice

The study had significance for higher education practices because it aimed to shed light on a topic that had previously been underexamined, though it was a critical part of a freshman student's integration into the community college environment, and for his/her subsequent persistence — i.e., faculty-student interaction in the community college classroom. College administrators and educational leaders might use the study results to inform the budget process, and to allocate critical resources toward faculty training and development in the area of classroom interactions with students. Faculty, for their part, might use the results to inform classroom practices, and to influence the design of curricular activities so as to create more welcoming, inclusive, and supportive classroom environments that embraced diverse perspectives, and that minimized incidents of faculty microaggression in the classroom. Since the offensive and hurtful messages of faculty microaggressions were often communicated

unconsciously and without intent, raising faculty awareness on this important topic was key to reducing the level and frequency of faculty microaggression in the community college classroom, which previous studies have, unfortunately, found to be pervasive (Casanova et al., 2018; Suarez-Orozco et al., 2015).

Significance to Social Change

Overt racism and sexism have mostly gone underground due to societal pressures (Fiarman, 2016; Nadal et al., 2013), but daily, subtle acts of microaggressions persisted for women and for people of color, and have found their way inside the community college classroom, where dominant male and Eurocentric perspectives were reinforced. Though microaggression on the part of faculty was likely to be unintended and unconscious, the fact still remained that faculty members' microaggressive words and behaviors sent subtle messages to students that "you do not belong here." In addition, ongoing acts of faculty microaggression towards the student victims wreaked havoc on the students' self-esteem, leading to feelings of anger, frustration, and oftentimes helplessness. Such acts could also deplete victims' psychic energy, impact their health and feelings of worthiness, shorten life expectancy, and deny equal access to societal benefits that accrued from education, employment, and healthcare (Sue, 2010). The study therefore had significance for social change, as it could play a small role in raising faculty and educational leaders' awareness on the pervasiveness and effects of implicit bias and microaggressions in academia, which were reflected in policy and practice decisions that served to preserve the status quo. Small policy changes that began with educational leaders could have long-term implications for students and their families, and for society at large, as cutting

community college students' dropout rate in half could lead to increased lifetime incomes for students, and increased total taxpayer revenues for states (Schneider & Yin, 2012).

Summary and Transition

Little was known about how faculty-student interactions in the community college classrooms might be related to community college students' intent to persist, as prior research had tended to largely focus on outside-class or informal faculty-student interactions (Grantham et al., 2015). There was therefore a need to explore the relationship at alpha .05 between community college freshmen's perceptions of in-class faculty-student interactions that involved racial and gender-based microaggressive behavior on the part of faculty, and these students' intent to persist; to examine whether differences existed in the freshman students' intent to persist at the community college, as well as in their perceptions of faculty classroom racial and gender microaggressions; and to seek to understand how students described their perceptions of interactions with faculty inside the classroom. The research study employed a convergent mixed methods approach to answering the overarching question about the results that emerged from comparing outcome quantitative data, obtained from measuring the effect of perceptions of racial and gender in-class community college faculty microaggressions on community college freshmen's intent to persist, with the exploratory qualitative data about community college freshman students' perceptions of their experiences with classroom faculty-student interactions. The research adopted Tinto's (1975) interactionalist model of student persistence as its theoretical framework, and used Sue's (2010) research on the concept of microaggressions to link together the ideas in the study. The study also used a convergent mixed-methods approach to inquiry in order to answer the research questions from a pragmatic perspective, and employed

survey instruments, including one containing open-ended questions at the end, to explore the relationship at alpha .05 among the variables (racial and gender-based faculty microaggressive behaviors, and community college freshman students' intent to persist), to determine whether differences existed in students' perceptions of faculty in-class racial and gender microaggressions and in their intent to persist, and to understand how students perceived their in-class interactions with faculty. The results of the research study were further used to answer the research questions, and were guided by Tinto's (1975) theoretical model, and Sue's (2010) research on the concept of microaggressions. The study also filled a gap in research by exploring how in-class faculty microaggressions directed at students were related to community college freshmen's intent to persist. Limited prior research existed that connected perceptions of community college faculty members' in-class microaggressive behaviors with community college freshman students' outcomes. Lastly, using a convergent mixed methods research design allowed for a more complete understanding of the research problem, which had implications for practice for faculty, educational leaders, and other educational practitioners.

In Chapter 2, the researcher begins by providing historical information on Tinto's (1975) model of student persistence, and reviews how other researchers have used Tinto's theory in ways that might be useful to this current study on students' perceptions of in-class faculty microaggressions, and community college freshmen's intent to persist. In addition, a comprehensive review of the literature on the relationship between faculty-student interaction and college student outcomes is presented, along with a review of how positive, or hostile, classroom environments can influence the educational outcomes of community college students that included dropping out of college. The researcher also provides an overview of the literature

on implicit bias that precedes an exhaustive review of empirical studies related to the concept of microaggressions in general, and to racial and gender microaggressions in particular.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Not much was known about how community college freshmen's perceptions of in-class faculty microaggressions might be influencing their intent to persist, as minimal research existed that explored the relationship between the two variables. The study's purposes were therefore to examine the relationship at alpha .05 between community college freshmen's perceptions of in-class microaggressions by faculty and their intent to persist, to examine whether differences existed in the racial and gender groups' intent to persist at the community college, and in their perceptions of classroom racial and gender microaggressions by faculty, and to explore students' perceptions of in-class interactions with faculty. Research suggested that positive faculty-student interactions had tremendous benefits for students (Anderson & Carta-Falsa, 2002; Cotton & Wilson, 2006; Cornelius, 1990; Endo & Harpel, 1982; Grantham, Robinson, & Chapman, 2015; Komarraju, Musulkin, & Bhattachaya, 2010; Kuh & Hu, 2001; Terenzini & Pascarella, 1980), and that most community college student interactions occurred inside the classroom (Chang, 2005; Lundberg, 2014; Wirt & Jaeger, 2014). When they occurred, faculty classroom microaggressions communicated aggressive and invalidating message to students that could affect their educational outcomes (Boysen, Vogel, Cope, & Hubbard, 2009; Diaz-Espinoza, 2015; Kwan, 2015; McCabe, 2009; Minikel-Lacocque, 2013), their physical, emotional and mental health (Casanova, McGuire, & Martin, 2018; Nadal, Hamit, Lyons, Weinberg, & Corman, 2013; Suarez-Orozco et al., 2015; Sue et al., 2007; Wong, Derthick, David, Saw, & Okazaki, 2014), and their long-term social and economic outcomes (Sue, 2010).

Theoretical Foundation

Grant and Osanloo (2014) argued that without a true theoretical framework, “the structure and vision for a study was unclear, much like a house that cannot be constructed without a blueprint” (p. 14). Several theories have been used to explore the relationship between student-faculty interaction and students’ higher educational outcomes. One major theory employed by several researchers was Astin’s (1970) inputs, environments, and outputs (I-E-O) model. Inputs referred to the student’s personal qualities that s/he initially brought to the education program that could be used as control variables in research. Environments referred to the actual experience that the student had during the educational program, and outputs referred to the ‘talents’ that the educational program hoped to develop (Astin, 1970). Astin argued that prior research on the impact of college on student outcomes yielded ambiguous findings because at least one of the three I-E-O components was missing. When researchers used a single-institution study that only considered inputs and outputs, Astin argued, information on environmental impact was ignored, though an indication of how the student changed during college was provided. Similarly, when a cross-sectional study of multiple institutions was used, information provided on the relationship between environments and outputs was highly susceptible to type I and type III errors (a significant college effect existed, but the investigator concluded that the opposite effect occurred—in a sense a combination of both Type I and Type II errors), unless data were also collected on student input. Astin (1970) therefore argued that “The most definitive information about college impact was obtained from multi-institution longitudinal studies in which data on student inputs, student outputs, and environmental characteristics were obtained” (p. 59). Though Astin’s (1970) work on I-E-O could be used in a single-institution study that

only considered inputs and outputs, and that could provide an indication of how the student changed during college, Astin's (1970) theory had limited applicability to the research study, as it did not consider what happened inside the classroom. Tinto's (1975) interactionalist model of student persistence, from which much major research on college student persistence stemmed, therefore served as the theoretical framework for this research, as it improved upon Astin's (1970) model by recognizing the importance of the classroom in facilitating students' academic and social integration (Bahner, 2015).

Tinto's (1975) interactionalist model was most widely used in research that explored the relationship between a student's integration into an educational institution (including through faculty-student interactions), and his or her dropout decision (Barnett, 2008; Kuh et al., 2006). According to Tinto (1975), students were more likely to commit to educational institutions and to their goal of completing college (not dropping out), if they were academically and socially integrated into the institution. Tinto's (1975) theory related student entry characteristics, initial and subsequent goal commitment, academic and social integration, and initial and subsequent institutional commitment to the outcome of persistence.

Tinto's (1975) Interactionalist Model of Student Persistence

Tinto (1975) noted, at the time of his theory development, that the plethora of studies on postsecondary dropout did little to shed light on the nature of the dropout process, mainly because of inadequate attention given to questions of definition, and to the development of theoretical models that sought to explain this phenomenon, instead of just describing it. He therefore set out to: (a) develop a theoretical model that explained the processes of interaction that occurred between individuals and institutions that led to some individuals dropping out of

higher education institutions, and (b) distinguish among those processes that resulted in definably different forms of dropout behavior. Tinto (1975) hoped to gain new insight into the “social process of dropout from higher education” (p. 91). Tinto’s theoretical model of dropout behavior had its roots in Durkheim’s (1961) theory of suicide as used in social psychology, and borrowed from the field of economics of education in applying a cost-benefit analysis to individual decisions about alternative educational activities.

Durkheim (1961) posited that individuals were more likely to commit suicide when they were not sufficiently integrated into the fabric of society. When colleges were viewed as social systems with their own social and values structure, per Tinto (1975), then one could draw an analogy between dropout from the college social system and suicide in larger society. Tinto (1975) therefore argued that when an individual did not have sufficient interactions with others in college, or held values divergent from the college community, s/he would have low commitment to that social system, and thus be more likely to leave college in favor of alternative activities.

Tinto’s (1975) interactionalist model distinguished between academic and social integration in exploring college dropout, as an individual might leave college because of failure in one or both. He further believed that, while Durkheim’s (1961) theory of suicide provided a description of dropout behavior, it did not explain how different individuals came to adopt different dropout behaviors. A theoretical model of dropout from college would therefore also need to explain the longitudinal process of interactions by which different individuals were led to varying forms of persistence, and/or dropout behavior. Individual characteristics and dispositions that were relevant to educational persistence were also built into the model. Tinto (1975) argued

that the process of dropout from college could be viewed as a longitudinal process of interactions between the individual and the academic and social systems of the college, during which a person's experiences in those systems (as measured by his normative and structural integration) continually modified his goal and institutional commitments, in ways which led to persistence and/or varying forms of dropout (p. 94). An assumption of Tinto's model was that a person would likely leave college if s/he perceived that investing his/her time, energy, and resources into an alternative activity would yield greater benefit-over-cost than staying in college. He synthesized prior research to support his theory, and sometimes interpreted implications about the dropout process in ways that might not have been immediately drawn from the research studies themselves. Nevertheless, as shown by Tinto's (1975) model, goal commitment was most directly affected by academic integration, and institutional commitment most directly affected by social integration. Ultimately, argued Tinto, colleges were academic institutions that rewarded academic achievement over social attainment.

Interaction within the college environment. With unchanging external conditions assumed, Tinto (1975) posited that dropout resulted from the individual's experiences with the academic and social systems of the college. This led to varying normative and structural integration levels, and to the reevaluation and modification (if necessary) of the goal to complete college. According to Tinto, academic integration occurred when the student became integrated into the academic systems of his or her higher education institution, and could be measured in terms of grade performance (meeting explicit standards of the academic system), and a student's intellectual development (identifying with the norms of the academic system) during his/her years in college. A student could fail to become academically integrated into the institution either

because of insufficient intellectual development, or insufficient congruency between his/her intellectual development and that which was the norm for the academic system's climate. Furthermore, social integration—like academic integration—also involved levels of integration, and degree of congruency between the individual and his/her social environment, as social interaction occurred between the individual student with his/her own background, traits, values, etc., and other individuals with varying backgrounds and characteristics. As such, Tinto (1975) contended, social integration could occur informally with peers, semi-formally through extracurricular activities, and formally through interactions with college faculty, staff, and administrators.

Predictive validity. Tinto (1975) has provided a theoretical foundation for student retention research for more than forty years. Prior to Tinto's model, a great majority of research on student retention used correlational studies that were not grounded in findings in an explanatory or conceptual framework (Halpin, 1990). Tinto's theory has also been shown to have predictive validity for all types of higher education institutions (Halpin, 1990; Pascarella & Chapman, 1983). Predictive validity is a criterion-related validity, in which the data for the instrument to be validated are gathered prior to obtaining the data for the external criterion (Powers, 2010). Three early studies that operationalized Tinto's (1975) model found it to be useful in analyzing student persistence or dropout. Pascarella and Terenzini (1980) established the predictive validity of Tinto's model when it was applied to the analysis of dropout from a large, private, selective, residential university. Terenzini, Lorang, and Pascarella (1981) found similar results when the study was replicated at a large, public, selective, residential university. Pascarella and Chapman (1983) later compared student dropout behavior from three types of

institutions—four-year residential, four-year commuter, and two-year commuter—sampling over 2,300 freshmen from eleven postsecondary institutions. The researchers found that Tinto's (1975) model had predictive validity for all the institutional types, but noted interesting differences when the data were disaggregated by institutional type: academic integration most strongly influenced dropout at commuter institutions, and social integration had a stronger effect at residential colleges.

Tinto's (1975) theory and the community college environment. A major criticism of Tinto's 1975 model was that it excluded the student population at community colleges (Metz, 2002). Halpin (1990), citing a dearth in published studies on student dropout from nonresidential, public, open-access institutions, replicated Pascarella and Terenzini's (1980) study, sampling 381 first-time, full-time, degree-seeking students at a relatively small and rural New York community college. Halpin found that, when the effects of background and environmental factors were controlled, academic integration exerted greater influence over community college students' dropout rates, compared to social integration, a finding similar to that of Pascarella and Chapman (1983). Halpin concluded that Tinto's model did indeed predict student persistence or exit outcomes, particularly for the academic integration aspect. Deil-Amen (2005) later supported Halpin's conclusion, arguing that community college persistence was related to measures of academic integration. Deil-Amen (2005) analyzed data from the National Center for Education Statistics' (NCES) Beginning Postsecondary Students (BPS) longitudinal study, to test Tinto's (1975) theory on two separate subsamples of four-year and community college students. The BPS survey included a representative sample drawn nationally from students who began their higher education pursuits in 1989-90, and followed them up to 1994. Deil-Amen used

binary logistic regression at alpha .05 to test how various factors might influence the dichotomous dependent dropout variable (0,1), in which 0 represented students who had either earned a degree or were still persisting after five year, and 1 represented not-enrolled and no-degree students. The researcher found overall applicability of Tinto's (1975) theory to community colleges, and also that the level of academic integration mattered more for community college students.

Karp, Hughes, and O'Gara (2008) interviewed forty-four randomly selected fall 2005 first-time students who were enrolled spring 2006, and who responded to letters of invitation to participate. The participants were students from two urban community colleges in the Northeast, who were interviewed in the spring of their second semester, and again six months later, whether or not they remained enrolled at the institution. The interviewers were able to contact thirty-six of the original forty-four students for the second interview. Students overwhelmingly reported a sense of integration—or having a sense of belonging—into the college, and indicated that belonging to an information network (of individuals who could provide guidance about professors, courses, and so on) was also important to them. Karp et al. (2008) concluded that, for community college students, integration did not develop in separate academic and social spheres, but that they were instead intertwined. Indeed, the majority of students in the study did not participate in “social” activities such as clubs or student government, but instead developed information networks inside the classroom that consisted of either other students or professors. The researchers concluded that Tinto's model, while applicable, needed to be reconceptualized for community college students in terms of social and academic integration.

Martin, Galentino, and Townsend (2014), using Tinto's (1975) theory as a framework for their study, sought to determine behaviors and characteristics that successful community college graduates might have in common. Seventeen former students were identified by faculty and staff of a large, public community college in the Southeast as being students who graduated from the community college in spite of the odds. These graduates were interviewed in a semi-structured format to explore the behaviors, characteristics, and perceptions that might have contributed to their success, and were asked about their preparation for college, their goals in attending college, and their academic and social behaviors when they were students at the community college. Martin et al. (2014) found that the successful graduates had clear goals, were motivated, could manage external demands, and demonstrated self-empowerment. Most importantly, however, the researchers found that the successful community college graduates were almost never involved in extracurricular activities, which meant that Tinto's (1975) social integration was practically non-existent for them. Further, these graduates had attended classes regularly, but only a few ever spoke to faculty members outside of class (Martin et. al., 2014). Though Martin et al. (2014) did not ask these successful students about how their in-class experiences with faculty might have affected their ability to persist (especially since the students indicated that most of their contact with the institution was with faculty inside the classroom), their findings nonetheless supported the notion of community college students' overwhelming lack of out-of-class contact with faculty.

Conceptual Framework

Many studies on microaggression employed Sue et al.'s (2007) conceptual framework on microaggressions (e.g. Diaz-Espinoza, 2015; Nadal et. al, 2013; McCabe, 2009; Sue, 2010; Sue,

Capodilupo, & Rivera, 2009). The concept of microaggression arose from the claim that “Bias, prejudice, and discrimination in North America had undergone a transformation, especially in the post-civil right era” (Sue, 2010, p. 23), and that overt racism and sexism had now become more ambiguous, thus making them difficult to detect. Acts of microaggression occurred frequently in American society, which had long struggled with issues around racial/ethnic and gender equity (Beck, 2017; Embrick, Dominguez, & Karsak, 2017). The term “microaggression” was first coined by Chester M. Pierce, a psychiatrist and professor at Harvard University (Berk, 2017; Sue 2010). Pierce et al. (1978) first described microaggressions as often automatic and nonverbal exchanges that were subtle in nature, and that served to “put down” groups that had been historically marginalized in society. Sue (2010) defined microaggressions as,

brief and commonplace daily verbal, behavioral, and environmental indignities, whether intentional or unintentional, that communicate hostile, derogatory, or negative racial, gender, sexual orientation, and religious slights and insults to the target person or group.
(p. 5)

In many instances, per Sue (2010), those who perpetrated acts of microaggression were often unaware that they had communicated in demeaning ways to the recipient. Still, the *cumulative* impact of ongoing acts of microaggression on the recipients of such acts could attack the victims’ self-esteem, cause them to feel anger and frustration, deplete their psychic energy, impact their health and feelings of worthiness, shorten life expectancy, and deny equal access to societal benefits that accrued from education, employment, and healthcare (Sue, 2010). The aggressor also held the power to define the position in nonracial (or nongender) terms (Sue, Capodilupo, Nadal, & Torino, 2008), and often dismissed microaggressive slights as banal or

trivial (Sue, Capodilupo, & Holder, 2008). As Keels et al. (2017) argued, the popularly held misconception that microaggressions might be offensive but caused no real harm emerged because of the subtle nature of microaggressions, and because microaggressive behaviors were often viewed as a normal part of interactions among individuals of different races and ethnicities. However, such views ignored the cumulative impacts of microaggressive interactions on the individual (Keels et al., 2017; Sue, 2010).

Examples of microaggressive acts included professors in class complimenting African American students for being “articulate;” Asian American students who were born in the United States being constantly asked where they were from; female students being told that they should pursue majors in “traditional” female-dominated careers, such as teaching or nursing; and blind students being constantly yelled at as if they were also deaf. At the societal level, the harmful effects of microaggressions could spill over into the victims’ quality of life and living standards (Sue, 2010). For example, a female engineer might be seen as less qualified for a promotion simply because of her gender, and because of the assumption that she could not lead a team of men. As Sue (2010) noted, “The inequities in employment and education were not so much the result of overt racism, sexism, or bigotry, but the unintentional, subtle, and invisible microaggressions that place marginalized groups at a disadvantage” (p. 17). Of course, as could be seen from the examples provided above, microaggressive behaviors reflected strong underlying racial and gender biases.

Microaggressions can be classified into three major categories: (a) microassaults, (b) microinsults, and (c) microinvalidation (Sue, 2010; Sue et al., 2007). Microassaults tended to be conscious and deliberate, and were communicated through environmental cues, words, and

behaviors. Microassaults came with the intention of causing harm, and were meant to attack the victim's group identity through name-calling, avoidant behaviors, and or other actions that were purposefully discriminatory. Examples of environmental microassaults included the displaying of Nazi symbols or burning crosses. As Sue (2010) noted, "the intent of the message was to threaten, intimidate, and make the individuals or groups feel unwanted and unsafe because they were inferior, subhuman, and lesser beings that do not belong on the same levels as others in this society" (p. 28). Examples of verbal microassaults included calling an African-American a 'nigger,' or calling a woman a 'bitch' or 'cunt' with the intention of assailing that person's racial or gender identity, and to make the individual feel "less than" (Sue, 2010). Other forms of microassaults included ignoring a group of African Americans waiting for a table, or promoting a less qualified man over a woman. According to Sue, microassaults were simply old-fashioned racism and sexism done at an individual level. However, because such behaviors were strongly condemned in society, microassaults were more likely to be expressed anonymously (example hanging a noose in a Black colleague's office), when the perpetrators felt some degree of safety (e.g. being in the presence of others who shared their attitudes and beliefs), or when the assaulter lost control of him or herself (Sue, 2010).

Microinsults demeaned a person's racial or gender identity through the conveyance of stereotypes, rudeness, and insensitivity. They tended to be more subtle, often operating outside the perpetrator's conscious awareness, while conveying insulting messages to the recipient. Examples of microinsults included professors expressing surprise that Black students were "articulate" (thus implying that Blacks as a group were unintelligent); or male engineering students assuming that their female peers knew less than they did, and discouraging them from

asking questions (Diaz-Espinoza, 2015; Sue, Capodilupo, & Holder, 2008). Microinvalidations, for their part, were “characterized by communications or environmental cues that exclude, negate, or nullify the psychological thoughts, feelings, or experiential reality of certain groups” (Sue, 2010, p. 37). Examples of these included U.S.-born Asian and Latino/a American individuals being made to feel like aliens in their own land; color blindness (e.g., “when I look at you I don’t see color”); denial of individual racism or sexism; and the myth of meritocracy (Sue, 2010). Sue (2010) argued that microinvalidations were the most damaging forms of microaggressions, as the ultimate form of oppression was the power to impose reality on marginalized groups.

Review of the Literature

Implicit Bias

It was widely acknowledged that discrimination had become less pervasive and less overt in society, being replaced by more subtle forms that frequently occurred unconsciously and without ill intent (e.g. Embrick et al., 2017; Fiarman, 2016; Selmi, 2018; Sue, 2010; Wong, Derthick, David, Saw, & Okazaki, 2014). Nevertheless, non-White students and female students frequently experienced subtle forms of bias in their everyday lives (Boysen, 2009; Sue, 2010). This subtle form of discrimination was often referred to as unconscious or implicit bias. Selmi (2018) noted that implicit bias was a term rooted in psychoanalysis that was used to define how well-intentioned individuals acted in discriminatory ways without even being aware of it. Greenwald, McGhee and Schwartz (1998) described implicit attitudes as “actions or judgements that were under the control of automatically activated evaluation, without the performer’s awareness of that causation” (p. 1464).

Greenwald et al. (1998) designed and tested a model used to diagnose a broad range of associated structures that were socially significant, known as the Implicit Association Test (IAT). In the first of three experiments, the researchers identified concepts that were expected to have highly similar evaluative associations across individuals (flower names vs insect names, and musical instrument names vs weapon names). Thirty-two students (thirteen males and nineteen females) enrolled in an introductory psychology course at the University of Washington were asked to respond using desktop computer keyboards to 150 stimulus words (25 insect names, 25 flower names, 25 musical instrument names, 25 weapon names, 25 pleasant-meaning words, and 25 unpleasant-meaning words). After the computer tasks, student participants were asked to complete paper questionnaires regarding their attitudes toward the four target concepts: flowers, insects, musical instruments, and weapons in that order; and to mark their feelings ('warmth' or 'coolness') on a feeling thermometer that was labeled from 0 to 99 with 10-degree intervals. Lastly, participants were asked to rate five semantic differential words for each concept. Greenwald et al. (1998) found that the IAT measures were "highly sensitive to evaluative discriminations that were well established in the connotative meaning structure of the English language" (p. 1469), and that there was a low correlation between explicit and implicit measures.

In the second experiment, Greenwald et al. (1998) sought to expand the IAT method to attitudinal differences between Japanese Americans and Korean Americans due to the history of antagonism between both groups, given Japan's military occupation and brutal subjugation of Korea during the first half of the twentieth century (Armstrong, 2000). Seventeen self-described Korean American students (eight females and nine males) and fifteen self-described Japanese American students (ten females and five males) enrolled in an introductory psychology course at

the University of Washington were asked to respond to the 25 pleasant-meaning and 25 unpleasant-meaning words from the first experiment, along with 25 Korean and 25 Japanese surnames selected with help of two judges from each ethnic group. After completing the computer tasks, students were asked to complete questionnaires that included the extent of their involvement with sociocultural groups in their own ethnicity, and the feeling thermometer. The researchers found that which they expected: that students who identified as ethnically Korean found it more difficult to associate Japanese surnames with 'pleasant', and students who identified as ethnically Japanese found it more difficult to associate Korean surnames with 'pleasant.' They also found that the IAT effect size was greater for students immersed in their particular Asian culture.

Experiment number three was conducted by Greenwald et al. (1998) to use the IAT method to measure an individual's implicit attitude that might be undetectable through explicit self-reporting. The researchers wanted to specifically determine if an implicit White preference would be revealed by the IAT for participants who explicitly disavowed bias. In this third experiment, the researchers used first names judged by students enrolled in introductory psychology courses as likely Black (e.g. Lamar, Ebony) vs likely White (e.g. Jed, Betsy), along with the 25 pleasant-meaning and 25 unpleasant-meaning words used in the first two experiments (with the minor exception of two unpleasant words that were changed). Twenty-six White students (fourteen females and twelve males) enrolled in introductory psychology courses at the University of Washington completed the IAT tasks, the feeling thermometer, and questionnaires containing measures of race-related attitudes and beliefs. Students completed the questionnaires in private booths and returned them in unmarked envelopes. Greenwald et al.

found that the White students more strongly associated White (than Black) with positiveness in stronger ways than even that which was observed for the flower-insect/instrument-weapon contrast, or the Korean-Japanese contrast in experiments one and two respectively. In addition, the thermometer index and the two IAT measures (male names, female names) showed a statistically significant relative preference for White, and a remarkably almost nonexistent racial preference on the semantic differential measure, which was similar to the weak sensitivity demonstrated for the Korean vs Japanese semantic differential. Additionally, nineteen of the twenty-six White students took a position of Black-White indifference (semantic differential of 0), or Black preference (a positive semantic differential score), though twenty-five of the twenty-six had negative IAT scores that indicated White preference. The researchers offered that a plausible explanation for these results could be that White college students had little familiarity with Black stimulus names, and an understandable preference for stimuli with which they were familiar. However, across the three experiments, there was much greater variation in the effect sizes of explicit measures (feeling thermometer and semantic differential measure) relative to the IAT measure's effect sizes, which suggested the "explicit measures might have been more responsive to self-presentational forces that can mask subjects' attitudes" (Greenwald et al., 1998, p. 1476). Per Greenwald et al. (1998), since the IAT and explicit-measure data were all collected anonymously and in private, this self-presentation was more private self-presentation (self-presentation to self) than impression management (self-presentation to others). In other words, when asked about bias, subjects were more likely—even in private—to explicitly indicate that they held no biases, even when they implicitly held biased views.

Greenwald et al. (1998) also considered the discriminant validity of the IAT method, and whether it measured implicit attitude, or simply represented the amount of exposure to stimuli used for target concepts. Undoubtedly, participants in experiments two (Korean and Japanese) and three (White) would be more familiar with their own ethnicity than the other, which meant the IAT measures could have possibly tapped differences in prior exposure. However, this alternative explanation did not apply to the first experiment, where the evaluatively negative concepts (insects, weapons) were made up of words that had considerably higher frequency in the language than those used for the evaluatively positive concepts (flowers and musical instruments), and in which the participants demonstrated more positive attitudes towards flowers than insects, and towards musical instruments than weapons. Thus, per Greenwald et al (1998), relative unfamiliarity with the stimulus items could not be used to explain the full set of findings obtained for all three experiments. Their assertion was supported by Jost et al. (2009), who reviewed thirty years of research on implicit bias, and found that even when familiarity with the stimuli were varied, or when statistical adjustments were made for observed differences in familiarity, there was still overwhelming support for the concept of implicit bias in general and the IAT in particular. Greenwald et al. (1998) concluded from the results of their three experiments that the IAT could indeed implicitly reveal prejudice that was explicitly disavowed, though they found the IAT's indication of the pervasiveness of unconscious forms of prejudice to be discouraging. Greenwald et al., also maintained that the IAT was further useful for evaluating associative differences between pairs of semantic or social categories, and could be adapted to assess a variety of associations. Banaji, Bhaskar, and Brownstein (2015) also supported the use of the IAT as a viable way to reveal the existence of implicit bias, noting that,

A signature result from research using the IAT was that people who had no intention to discriminate may still do so in their behavior toward others who vary in age, gender, class, race/ethnicity, sexuality, religion, and nationality among other social groupings. (p. 183)

Sue (2010) viewed the relationship of implicit bias to microaggressions as being clear cut, in that acts of microaggressions were most often implicit in nature, and harder to detect and to change than were explicit expressions of bias. Sue joined the chorus of researchers (e.g. Beck, 2017; Embrick et al., 2017) who contended that great strides had been made in reducing explicit forms of bias and discrimination, but that there had been much less success in eradicating covert or implicit forms of bias or discrimination, especially as individuals may not even be aware of their own unconscious bias.

Microaggression

Sue (2010) contended that microaggressive incidents resulted from “ongoing interactions between perpetrators and recipients” (p. 9), and that they could be psychologically draining for the recipients. In order to probe how Black Americans perceived of, interpreted, and reacted to microaggressions, Sue, Capodilupo, and Holder (2008) conducted two focus groups of thirteen self-identified African Americans (nine women and four men) who were solicited through posted fliers, classroom invitations, and via a web site. The participants were provided with a brief demographic questionnaire, and were also interviewed using a semi-structured format. Five domains resulted from Sue, Capodilupo, and Holder’s analysis: (a) microaggressive incident, which could be verbal, nonverbal/behavioral, or environmental situations; (b) perception, which had to do with whether or not the participant believed the incident to be motivated by race; (c)

reaction, which were the participants' immediate responses to the incident, and which could consist of healthy paranoia, sanity checks, empowering and validating self, or rescuing the offender; (d) interpretation, which referred to the meaning the participants ascribed to the microaggressive incident, and that included core themes like "you do not belong here," "you are abnormal," "you are intellectually inferior," "you are not trustworthy," and "you are all the same;" and (e) consequence, which referred to the psychological effects of the microaggressive incident on the recipients, and that included feelings of powerlessness, feeling invisible, forced compliance, and loss of integrity, and feeling pressured to represent one's group. The five domains, however, did not necessarily occur in sequential order.

Sue, Capodilupo, and Holder (2008) concluded that acts of microaggression forced victims into the unenviable position of ascertaining the meaning of the incident, of trying to determine whether the incident was purposeful or not, and of having to decide on an appropriate way to react. According to Sue (2010), a similar process would be followed by female victims as they sought to perceive of, interpret, and react to subtle acts of gender microaggression. In these instances, the aggressor held the power to define the position in nonracial (or nongender) terms (Sue, Capodilupo, Nadal, & Torino, 2008), and often dismissed microaggressive slights as banal or trivial (Sue, Capodilupo, & Holder, 2008). When the more powerful (White or male) perpetrators dismissed individual acts of microaggression as 'small,' they also in turn ignored the cumulative nature of microaggressive acts, as well as the power of demeaning messages (Sue, Capodilupo, & Holder, 2008). As Keels et al. (2017) argued, the popularly held misconception that microaggressions might be offensive but caused no real harm emerged because of the subtle nature of microaggressions, and because microaggressive behaviors were often viewed as a

normal part of interactions among individuals of different races and ethnicities. Yet, as Sue (2010) noted, the harmful effects of microaggressions could also spill over into the victims' quality of life and living standards. Hence, "The power to define reality was not supported at the individual level alone, but at the institutional and societal levels as well" (Sue, Capodilupo, & Holder, 2008, p. 335). In this study, faculty classroom behaviors perceived as being microaggressive by community college freshmen were not dismissed as just "innocent acts;" instead, they were interpreted using Sue's (2010) conceptual framework on microaggressions. In other words, individual acts of microaggression on the part of faculty inside the community college classroom could, cumulatively, prove to be traumatic, and could wreak havoc on the students' physical and mental health and well-being (Sue, Capodilupo, & Holder, 2008).

Microaggression and bias in the classroom. There was little research on incidents of bias in college classrooms (Boysen, 2009; Boysen, Vogel, Cope & Hubbard, 2009; Suarez-Orozco et al., 2015), though evidence suggested that that was where most college campus bias incidents occurred (Marcus, Mullins, Brackett, Tang, Allen & Pruitt, 2003). In addition, only a few studies had explored how college students perceived microaggressions, though they could cause psychological and physical stress, could have "deleterious effects on students" (Boysen, 2012, p. 123), and could disrupt cognitive functioning for African American students (Salvatore & Shelton, 2007).

Marcus et al. (2003) surveyed three hundred and ninety-eight students at a Southern urban university to get a sense of their perceptions of campus climate, and classroom interactions with their peers and with the academic faculty. Not surprisingly, Black students reported more bias incidents than did White students, and students' experiences of discrimination on campus

tended to be with more covert, rather than overt, forms. Additionally, students reported experiencing a much higher incidence of discriminatory behaviors inside the classroom from faculty members than outside the classroom, with a large portion of the students reporting having their intellectual ability belittled by their instructors (Marcus et al., 2003). The current research study examined community college freshmen's perceptions of microaggressive behaviors on the part of faculty in the classroom, which included belittling students and putting them down in class. Marcus et al.'s (2003) study findings therefore supported the notion that college students did indeed perceive microaggressive faculty behavior inside the classroom.

Solórzano, Ceja, and Yosso (2000) conducted ten focus groups with thirty-four African American students who attended three elite, research institutions in the United States. Many Black students in the study reported feeling “invisible” in the college classroom; i.e., they were often ignored in class by the instructor. In addition, participants' experiences with racial microaggressions in classroom faculty-student interactions included having faculty maintaining low expectations of them, even when they demonstrated competence. For example, one student described earning a ninety-five on a math test, and being called into the professor's office to take the test again, because the faculty member thought the student had cheated. (The student scored a ninety-eight the second time around.) Additionally, the African American students reported being constantly confronted with the assumption that they only got to the universities through affirmative action—instead of on the strength of their academic abilities (Solórzano et al., 2000). Black/African American students' feelings of being “invisible” and ignored in the college classroom were also explored in this study.

Boysen et al. (2009) surveyed 443 graduate instructors and 1,747 undergraduate students at a large Midwestern university in the United States to explore their perceptions of classroom bias. Participants responded ‘yes’ or ‘no’ to questions on whether or not they witnessed overt and/or subtle bias in class over the past year, and indicated the target and types of bias incidents (overt bias only). The students were also asked whether the instructor noticed the bias incidents, and if so, to describe how the instructor responded to the incidents in open-ended questions. The researchers found that undergraduate students perceived overt and subtle biases as occurring more frequently than did graduate instructors. In addition, non-White students and female students were more likely to report being targets of overt and covert bias in the classroom. For their part, instructors either provided information, directly confronted, facilitated group discussions, or simply ignored the bias event. Alarming, Boysen et al. found that “a substantial number of undergraduates indicated that the instructor’s response to bias was to join in with it or otherwise indicated that the instructor was the source of bias” (p. 225). Unfortunately, per Boysen et al. (2009), students did not find a bias-free learning environment in the college classroom. Indeed, Boysen et al.’s (2009) study findings supported the notion that non-White and female students perceived bias on the part of faculty inside the college classroom; a finding important to this current study that explored perceptions of faculty classroom microaggressions by non-White and female community college freshmen.

Boysen (2012) described classroom bias as the “subtle and blatant ways that prejudice, discrimination, and stereotypes emerge in teaching situations” (p. 122). He also identified common classroom microassaults as including verbal derogation or avoidance/exclusion; common classroom microinsults as engaging in disrespectful or demeaning language or behavior

based on a person's group status; and microinvalidations as undermining or denying the experience of marginalized groups. The author sought to gauge teachers' and students' perceptions on how subtle forms of classroom bias should be managed. Boysen (2012) asked 222 instructors from 4-year colleges in a large state university system, and 166 students from a single medium-sized state college to rate their perceptions of microaggressions on a 7-point bipolar adjective scale. Teachers were also asked to answer yes/no to whether they would respond to classroom microaggressions, and all participants were asked to assess the general effectiveness of various teacher responses to microaggressions: ignoring the incident, leading a discussion about the incident, privately confronting the student(s) who made the comment outside of class, pointing out how flaws in thinking led to the incident, or confronting the student right away. The researcher found that teachers who taught diversity-related courses were significantly more likely to perceive the microaggressions as negative than nondiversity teachers, and that diversity professors rated ignoring microaggressions as significantly less effective than nondiversity instructors. Boysen (2012) further found it surprising that students rated the effectiveness of teacher responses consistently higher than the teachers did, which was contrary to previous research in which instructors tended to rate their responses significantly higher than students rated their teachers' responses. The author posited that asking teachers to respond to scenarios that demonstrated microaggression (such as a White student commenting to an African American student that "When I look at you I don't see color") might have deflated teachers' effectiveness ratings and inflated students' effectiveness ratings, as students want their faculty to respond, but faculty may not know how to respond appropriately (Boysen, 2012; Boysen et al, 2009). Similar to Boysen's (2012) study, the current study examined classroom microaggressions that included

disrespectful or demeaning language and/or behavior on the part of faculty toward the students, based on a student's group status.

Suarez-Orozco et al. (2015) selected three distinct community colleges in the New York City metropolitan area to participate in a study focused on the relationship between campus settings, academic engagement, and community college student performance. All three community colleges served predominantly low-income, minority, and immigrant students. One campus was located in a neighborhood with very few resources, a second was located in the flourishing downtown section of a large urban center, and the third was located in an affluent suburb that was known for segregation based on class. Selected classrooms also contained at least four immigrant-origin students from a range of backgrounds and social circumstances. The researchers developed a Classroom Interpersonal Microaggression Protocol to capture microaggressions as they occurred. Research team members underwent six hours of rigorous training prior to observing sixty classrooms in a variety of disciplines. Suarez-Orozco et al. (2015) found that at least one microaggression was observed in seventeen of the 60 classrooms, with fourteen of these 17 classrooms having anywhere from two to ten microaggressive events occurring in the same class session. Thus, a total of fifty-one microaggressive events were recorded in the seventeen classrooms where microaggressions were observed. Further, the 51 observed microaggressions were more likely to occur on the two campuses that served majority minority students (low-resourced and urban campuses) and in remedial classrooms, and tended to be intelligence-related; i.e., they attacked the intelligence and competence of students. Also, as found in Boysen et al.'s (2009) study, instructors were most frequently the perpetrators of microaggressions in the classroom (Suarez-Orozco et al., 2015).

Casanova, McGuire, and Martin (2018) observed seventeen classrooms during regular class times, across three community college campuses in the northeast. The context of any observed microaggression was recorded (e.g. what classroom activity was taking place at the time), along with the initiator of the microaggression, the target involved in the microaggressive exchange, the tone of the microaggression, and the response to the microaggression. Casanova et al. (2018) obtained results that were similar to Suarez-Orozco et al.'s (2015) findings: the perpetrators of microaggressions were overwhelmingly faculty, and microaggressions occurred most frequently in remedial classes. In addition, when faculty were the aggressors, they tended to publicly shame the target (seventy-eight percent of the time), and to talk down to the targets (generally students). Microaggressions were also more likely to occur during teacher-centered class times (e.g. when lecturing or reviewing for exams). Casanova et al. (2018) further noted that, after the microaggressive event, students were most likely to retreat into silence, to disengage, or to become uncomfortable. As noted previously, the current study examined community college freshmen's perceptions of faculty classroom microaggressive behaviors, but did not consider these students' responses to such behaviors. Suarez-Orozco et al.'s (2015) and Casanova et al.'s (2018) studies' findings were, however, important to the current study, as the researchers observed faculty acts of microaggression directed at students as they were occurring—thus providing strong support for the existence of faculty microaggressions in the community college classroom.

The afore-mentioned studies lend support to the notion that college campuses and classrooms were not free from bias and microaggressions (Boysen et al., 2009); that incidents of microaggressions could affect students' health, cognition and sense of well-being (Boysen, 2012;

Salvatore & Shelton, 2007; Sue, 2010; Sue, Capodilupo, & Holder, 2008), and that faculty-initiated microaggressions were pervasive in community college classrooms (Casanova et al., 2018; Suarez-Orozco et al., 2015).

Racial and gender microaggression. The everyday assault of racial and gender microaggressions could take its toll on the physical and mental health of non-White students and female students, which could in turn influence their academic performance (Diaz-Espinoza, 2015; Kwan, 2015; Lester, Struthers, & Yamanaka, 2017; McCabe, 2009; Milner, 2017; Solórzano, Ceja, & Yosso, 2000). In addition, racial microaggression, especially the types that occurred in the classroom and workplace setting, could lead to lower self-esteem (Nadal, Wong, Griffin, Davidoff, & Sriken, 2014). Nadal et al. (2014) administered the Racial and Ethnic Minority Scale (REMS) that sought to measure experiences with racial/ethnic microaggressions, and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (SES) that measured feelings of self-worth, to a diverse group of 225 undergraduate students. The authors found a significant negative correlation between experiencing microaggressions and self-esteem scores ($r = -.142, n = 225, p = .05$). In addition, Nadal et al. (2014) found that White students experienced significantly less frequent racial microaggressions than their Black, Asian, and Latino/a peers. Further, the researchers found that Black and Latino/a participants experienced more inferiority microaggressions, Black students reported more criminality and second-class citizen microaggressions, Latino/a students experienced significantly more exoticization microaggressions (because of their race, ethnicity, immigration status, language, and accents), and Asian participants reported more environmental microaggression (feeling left out because their race was largely absent in the media, government, and other systems) than other groups. However, and most interestingly, Nadal et al. (2014) found

that students were more likely to experience lower self-esteem when they experienced microaggressions at work or in educational settings by professors or other students.

McCabe (2009) conducted 68 interviews and four focus groups with a racially-diverse group of undergraduate students from a large, public Midwestern and mostly White university, in order to understand microaggression as it related to race and gender. The researcher found that Black and Latino/a students reported greater feelings of isolation than their White peers, that Black males were stereotyped as being aggressive, threatening or criminal, that Latinas felt stereotyped as sexually available and exotic, and that Latino/a students were often told to “go back” by others, even when they were born in the United States. These findings were supported by Nadal et al.’s (2014) results. In addition, McCabe (2009) found that Black female students reported facing the majority of microaggressive acts inside the college classroom, where their ideas were ignored or discounted, and where they were often called upon to represent their entire race. This, in turn, caused them to feel isolated, or burdened by the pressure to represent their race. In addition, per McCabe (2009), White female students reported experiencing microaggressions in male-dominated major fields, where their intelligence and skills were questioned. White female students did not, however, report experiencing microaggressions outside of those specific academic settings (McCabe, 2009). The current study examined female students’ perceptions of gender microaggressions on the part of the faculty inside the community college classroom. McCabe’s (2009) study findings would suggest that female students perceived some level of faculty microaggression inside the college classroom.

Minikel-Lacocque (2013) conducted a qualitative case study of six Latino/a students as they transitioned from high school to a flagship state university in the Midwest. Participants were

interviewed using a semi-structured, in-depth format over the course of ten months, from June 2006 to April 2007. Student participants reported feelings of isolation at the institution (which was also a finding in McCabe's 2009 study), being subjected to stereotyping and insensitive and ignorant comments about their culture, and the underlying suspicion by White students that minority students in elite institutions did not earn their way there, but got there simply because of their skin color. While the current research study took place at a community college, racially insensitive and ignorant comments were not limited to elite universities alone. Syed (2010) surveyed two hundred and thirty students at a public university in California to explore how they experienced academia through the lens of their ethnicity. Student participants were categorized as White, mixed ethnicity, Asian American, or Latino/a based on self-reporting. Syed found that Asian American students were more likely to share experiences of prejudice and stereotyping. Asian American students, for example, who were majoring in social sciences or humanities were frequently asked why they were not majoring in science or engineering, and those who did poorly in math classes had to confront the shock of classmates who assumed they would be at the top of the class. In addition, Syed (2010) reported that Latino/a students emphasized their underrepresentation in higher education, while mixed-ethnicity students faced frequent microaggressive denials of their identity by others. Interestingly, while racial/ethnic minority students highlighted tales of discrimination and underrepresentation, White students "told stories that represented learning, awareness, and consciousness raising" (Syed, 2010, p. 66). Nonetheless, Syed (2010) also noted that White students frequently minimized the concept of ethnicity because they felt too much emphasis was placed on it in college, and denied the impact of race/ethnicity in American society, preferring to argue in favor of a so-called colorblind

society. The author posited that this may represent a part of White students' learning process about White privilege and position in the social hierarchy that was a first step toward anti-racist attitudes, or a coping strategy for dealing with a newfound awareness of privilege.

Hernández and Villodas (2018) argued that ethnic identity was an important consideration when examining how racial microaggression might affect college persistence attitudes. The researchers administered: (a) a demographic questionnaire, (b) the Racial Microaggressions Scale (RMAS; Torres-Harding, Andrade, & Romero Diaz, 2012), (c) the Persistence/Voluntary Dropout Decisions Scale (P/VDD; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1980), (d) the collectivistic coping styles measure (Moore & Constantine, 2005), and (e) the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure-Revised (MEIM-R; Phinney & Ong, 2007) to 681 undergraduate Latina/o and Chicana/o students who were matriculated at a large Southwestern public university. The researchers found evidence that linked lower student persistence attitudes to more frequent experiences with racial microaggression on campus. In addition, Hernández and Villodas (2018) found that students who more strongly identified with their ethnic identities, and who used social support seeking as a coping strategy, reported feeling more committed to college completion. Per Hernández and Villodas (2018), social support seeking included soliciting advice from others who had similar experiences, spending time with loved ones, and sharing feelings of concern with others from one's own cultural background.

Nadal, Hamit, Lyons, Weinberg, and Corman (2013) classified gender microaggressions according to Sue's (2010) taxonomy. According to the authors, gender microassaults were similar to 'old fashioned sexism' in which perpetrators might be unconscious of their bias, such as a men catcalling women or calling them bitches; microinsults occurred when men sent

negative and subtle messages of inferiority to women, such as assuming they could not lift heavy boxes even when they were perfectly capable of doing so, or berating women for being too ‘sensitive’; and microinvalidations in which the realities of women were invalidated or negated, such as when men believed the world was just, and vehemently insisted that sexism no longer existed. Nadal et al. (2013) conducted focus groups of fourteen women recruited from the community, nonprofit community organizations, the local university, and women’s dormitories to investigate women’s reactions towards gender microaggressions, using a Consensual Qualitative Research (CQR) design that sought to provide in-depth analysis of individual experiences. The researchers found that women processed gender microaggressions in three ways: (a) behaviorally—physical reaction to the event, (b) emotionally—various feelings experienced during and after the event, and (c) cognitively—using intellectual and logical processes. The authors also found that the dominant group by virtue of status in society (men) were not the only ones who committed microaggressions, but that family members, other women and society did as well. The range of women’s reactions to gender microaggressions that emerged from Nadal et al.’s (2013) study were: (a) Emotional reactions—internalized emotions (e.g. humiliation, guilt), and externalized, emotions (e.g. planning escape due to fear for safety); (b) Behavioral reactions—passivity (e.g. laughing it off), protection (e.g. walking with group instead of alone, pretending to be lesbian to not get hit on), avoidance (e.g. keeping head down when walking past a group of men), confrontation (e.g. telling catcaller to “screw off,” reporting sexism to boss); and (c) Cognitive reactions—resiliency (e.g. trying to prove self even more, working harder to do as well as or better than men), acceptance (e.g. conceding that women were supposed to act in certain ways, allowing men to carry boxes though perfectly able to do it),

resistance (e.g. cognitively defying gender stereotypes, not judging other women according to gender role expectations). In addition, enactors of gender microaggressions included: (a) Familial—e.g. expectations that women should cook and clean house, or a mother telling her daughter to wear more makeup; (b) Other women—calling another woman a slut or trick, or judging and gossiping about other women; and (c) Societal—women making less money than men for the same work; women not expected to smoke or drink like men.

Further, Nadal et al. (2013) found that gender microaggressions could cause mental health risks, such as depression, sexual dysfunction, eating disorders, and body image issues in women. They also noted that women may experience conflicting emotions in response to gender microaggressions: on the one hand, they might feel good about being desired by men, but on the other hand, they might also experience negative emotions over being objectified. Nadal et al. (2013) concluded that the way women reacted to gender microaggressions depended on a combination of upbringing, attitude, and context, and that women with stronger feminist identities might be more likely to be aware of gender microaggression. Additionally, per the authors, women freely discussed within-group microaggression and, like other forms of microaggression, gendered microaggressions were “pervasive, negatively affecting the mental health and everyday experiences of women” (Nadal et al., 2013, p. 217). The current study sought to examine whether female community college freshmen perceived faculty gender microaggressions in the classroom, and whether such perceptions were related to their intent to persist at the community college. However, as noted before, while female students’ perceptions of faculty classroom microaggressions were explored in this study, the way they responded to such perceptions were not considered.

Diaz-Espinoza (2015) interviewed twenty-eight female students enrolled in chemical engineering, computer engineering, or mechanical engineering at a mid-sized public university in the Northeast, to explore how microaggressions shaped the lived experiences of female engineering students. The researcher found that female engineering students often felt underestimated and ignored by their male peers and feeling like they needed to always “prove” themselves, that they encountered sexist language and behaviors that created a “chilly” climate for them, and that they felt forced into silence and pressured to not ask questions or seek help. Diaz-Espinoza also found themes similar to those found by Nadal et al. (2013), such as female engineering students’ experiences of microaggression from family members and societal pressures about the types of professions in which women were “supposed” to engage. Further, the researcher reported that some female engineering students felt it necessary to change their behaviors and attire (such as wearing “unflattering” jeans), in order to fit in. Diaz-Espinoza’s (2015) research further reinforced the complexity of gender microaggression, with most participants reporting that it was the subtle comments and experiences that often had the deepest impact on their well-being.

Microaggression taxonomy: Use and limitations. Wong et al. (2014) conducted a comprehensive literature review of research on microaggressions using Sue et al.’s (2007) microaggression taxonomy, with a focus on racial microaggressions. The authors searched for the term “racial microaggressions” in various databases, read and annotated each article or dissertation, and organized them into several categories: (a) nature of the article, (b) type of study, (c) sample racial/ethnic demographics, (d) setting/context, and (e) rationale/purpose/consequences. Wong et al. (2014) found that most of the sixty studies

identified (with the exception of one) used Sue et al.'s (2007) racial microaggression taxonomy to frame the interpretation of their data. However, per Wong et al. (2014), Sue et al.'s (2007) taxonomy had limitations in theory and application. For example, there were conceptual gaps around the difference between microassaults and overt racism, questions around the differences, if any, of racial microaggression experiences for immigrant and non-immigrant groups and non-visible racial minorities, as well as questions regarding the role of internalized oppression. Wong et al. (2014) also contended that Sue et al. (2007) did not demonstrate how racial microaggressions differed from, related to, or fit with discrimination theoretical models. Further, in terms of prior research on racial microaggression, Wong et al. (2014) identified gaps in the exploration of the psychological and physical health outcomes of such microaggression (especially in terms of long-term effects), and in the exploration of the immediate reaction to microaggression. The authors also felt that significantly more research was needed in terms of the cumulative effects of racial microaggression across an individual's lifespan, for between-group and within-group microaggressions, as well as how coping mechanisms served to mitigate, or not, the effects of racial microaggression. The researchers also noted limitations to the preponderance of qualitative studies on racial microaggression, and on the mostly self-reported, retrospective nature of quantitative racial microaggression scales that made it "difficult to determine the proximal effects of microaggression" (Wong et al., 2014, p. 191). The current study, while significantly contributing to the literature on community college freshmen's perceptions of microaggressions on the part of faculty inside the classroom, was also limited to the use of retrospective data, which limited the study's generalizability.

Notwithstanding that, Wong et al. (2014) conceded that the study of racial microaggressions was important, and that Sue et al.'s (2007) work provided conceptual clarification on the topic of microaggression. According to Wong et al., the election of the forty-fourth president of the United States created a gap in perception between the majority of Americans who felt race relations had improved to the point of no longer being a major social problem affecting the actual experience of racism, by racial minorities. The researchers therefore called for further studies on the impact of more subtle forms of microaggression, on the role of perpetrators, and on the consequences of within-group and between-group racial microaggression for racial and ethnic minorities. The current study answered the call for further research on the impact of microaggressions, by examining the relationship (at alpha .05) between community college freshmen's perceptions of faculty classroom microaggressions, and their intent to persist at the institution.

The foregoing comprehensive discussion on microaggression in general, and racial and gender microaggression in particular, leave no doubt that experiencing microaggressions can have serious physical, emotional, mental, and cognitive effects on the recipients of such microaggressions (Nadal et al., 2013; Salvatore & Shelton, 2007; Sue, 2010). Overt racism and sexism have mostly gone underground (Fiarman, 2016; Nadal et al., 2013), but daily, subtle acts of microaggressions persist for women and for people of color. Berk (2017) strongly summarized this reality follows:

The ugly implicit biases residing in our minds and hearts are the evil sources of microaggressions. We have to treat both the symptoms (microaggressions) and the

disease (biases). Doing nothing is the biggest threat to [dis]continuing the status quo. (p. 103)

Faculty-Student Interaction and Academic/Social Integration

Decades of research on faculty-student interactions in higher education had overwhelmingly confirmed that faculty played a socializing role in students' college experiences, and could positively influence student outcomes (Bean, 1985; Cotton & Wilson, 2006; Endo & Harpel, 1982; Grantham, Robinson, & Chapman, 2015; Kuh & Huh, 2001; Lamport, 1993; Terenzini & Pascarella, 1980; Tinto 1975). Bean (1985), whose work has been important to retention and dropout studies over the years, used path analysis to develop a conceptual model of the factors affecting dropout syndrome (which he defined as a combination of intent to leave, discussion of leaving, and actual attrition). He evaluated questionnaires received from 1,781 undergraduate students at a major midwestern research university, who made up the majority of college students at the time: White, U.S. citizens, 23 years old or younger, unmarried, and registered for ten or more credits. Bean found that the formal aspects of faculty contact, as occurred inside the classroom, were more influential than informal interactions. Lamport (1993), who later conducted a comprehensive review of literature on informal faculty-student interaction and the effect on student outcomes, concluded that "To varying degrees, faculty can aid in student academic achievement, college satisfaction, intellectual and personal development, persistence in college, and career educational aspirations" (p. 984).

Endo and Harpel's (1982) influential study on the effect of faculty-student interaction on student academic outcomes employed Spady's (1970; 1971) and Tinto's (1975) research as part of a framework for considering how faculty-student interactions impacted student outcomes after

four-years at one institution. Most previous studies had only considered faculty-student interaction effects after just one or two years. Both Spady and Tinto posited that a student's degree of persistence would depend upon the degree to which s/he was integrated into the academic and social systems of a college, with Spady placing more emphasis on social integration, while Tinto emphasized both. Endo and Harpel (1982) also adapted Astin's (1970) conceptual model of student higher education development in which college could be viewed as being made up of three conceptually distinct components: student outputs, student inputs, and the college environment. Per Astin, student outcomes were the aspects of student development that colleges did not influence or tried to influence, and that must be measured in order to produce meaningful research on college impact. Student inputs were those characteristics, skills, and abilities that new students brought to a college, and served as the raw material with which the college must deal. Inputs could serve as "pretests" on certain outputs (e.g. personal values), could be static personal attributes (such as gender), and could affect outputs directly or through interaction with environmental variables. Lastly, the college environment included aspects of the higher educational institution that could affect the student, such as policies, curriculum, and so on (Astin, 1970).

Endo and Harpel (1982) included a wide range of student outcome variables while employing a causal model that included three sets of variables: (a) students' background characteristics (inputs)—demographic/academic variables, student expectation variables, and the initial value for each outcome that was being specifically measured (where feasible); (b) four aspects of faculty-student interaction (environment)—formal interaction, informal interaction, quality of faculty advising, and faculty helpfulness; and (c) four categories of outcomes (outputs)

that were derived from a comprehensive literature review and the authors' prior research—personal/social outcomes, intellectual outcomes, academic achievement, and satisfaction with education. Further, Endo and Harpel (1982) examined “what types of student-faculty interaction had impacts on what types of student outcomes” (p. 119). They defined the frequency of faculty-student interaction as: (a) “formal”—faculty members' more perfunctory or professional approach with students, and (b) “informal”—faculty members' more friendly relationship with students that showed a personal and broad concern for students' emotional and cognitive growth. The authors also included two qualitative aspects of faculty-student interaction: (a) quality of faculty academic and vocational advising, and (b) helpfulness of faculty. Data from the University of Colorado's 1975 Freshman Questionnaire provided information on family background, current/future plans, college expectations, skills evaluation, goals, and extracurricular activities for freshmen; and, four years later, the 1979 Graduating Students Survey provided information on many of the same items as in the freshman survey. The authors also obtained demographic and academic data from institutional records. Endo and Harpel found that, even after controlling for background variables, faculty-student interaction generally affected student outcomes. Further, frequency of informal faculty-student interaction was more likely to affect student outcomes than frequency of formal faculty-student interaction, and helpfulness of faculty greatly affected satisfaction with education, while also influencing progress toward intellectual goals and participation in activities. Their findings supported Terenzini and Pascarella's (1980) earlier conclusion that the quality and frequency of faculty-student interactions positively impacted students' personal, intellectual, and academic outcomes, though the quality of the contact was more influential than the frequency. According to Endo and

Harpel (1982), their results “provided support for the importance of the impact of student-faculty interaction on the intellectual and personal/social outcomes of college students” (p. 132).

Kuh and Hu (2001) conducted a study to determine if the nature and educational value of faculty-student interaction in American higher education in the 1990s had changed from the 1970s and 1980s, given the change in student and institutional characteristics, approaches to teaching and learning, and advances in instructional technology. The authors used data collected from students’ responses to the College Student Experiences Questionnaire (CSEQ) from 126 four-year colleges and universities across the United States that provided information on a range of student characteristics, as well as on student effort, their perception of the institutions’ environments, and estimates of students’ progress toward desirable college outcomes. Kuh and Hu’s (2001) work confirmed findings of earlier research: that substantive faculty-student interaction positively impacted general education, and personal and intellectual development. The authors also found that: (a) faculty-student contact increased over four years as students moved to major courses; (b) the effort students put into other activities mediated the positive effects of faculty-student contact on student satisfaction and gains; (c) the selectivity and type of the institution had minimal influence on student satisfaction and gains; (d) the effects of faculty-student interaction were conditional on students’ preparation and effort, and (e) students’ interactions with faculty tended to be general in nature (such as asking for course information), and were rarely personal or social. One interesting finding was that “talking with faculty members about writing came close to having a significant negative effect on satisfaction” (Kuh & Hu, 2001, p. 328). The authors posited that faculty feedback on students’ writing—especially in the first year—might be viewed as shocking and overly critical. Notwithstanding that finding,

Kuh and Hu (2001) concluded that faculty-student interaction “encourages students to devote greater effort to other educationally purposeful activities during college” (p. 329).

Cotton and Wilson (2006) posited that faculty contributed to students’ college experiences, particularly via classroom interaction. They further argued that faculty-student interactions could take many forms, such as formal versus informal, or social versus academic. The authors conducted a qualitative study using nine focus groups conducted between February and April 2002 to explore the factors that influenced whether students interacted with faculty, how they interacted, and what were the dynamic processes that influenced such interactions. Forty-nine participants were recruited from a public research university in the mid-Atlantic, with focus group size ranging from two to twenty students. Cotton and Wilson (2006) asked a number of questions that sought to get a sense of the frequency and quality of students’ interactions with faculty, as well as the underlying reasons why such interactions occurred. Students in the study reported that, though they had some level of interaction with faculty, such interactions were mostly infrequent and not a regular part of their academic experience. In addition, several students reported no interaction with faculty outside the classroom, largely because they were unaware of the potential benefits of considerable interactions with faculty, did not perceive a need for it, or because of time constraints. Nevertheless, when students reported faculty interactions, they tended to perceive such interactions as beneficial in terms of grade and networking opportunities, and to report more satisfaction with the college experience and an enhanced sense of community with the institution.

In keeping with Kuh and Hu’s (2001) findings, Cotton and Wilson (2006) also found that student effort was the link between faculty-student interaction and student performance. Yet,

students in Cotton and Wilson's (2006) qualitative study often perceived such effort as coming at a cost to them, as it put a certain level of responsibility on the students. According to Cotton and Wilson (2006), students may avoid contact with faculty because "they prefer to avoid actions that might increase their self-imposed work effort, or they may prefer to avoid the risk of not living up to someone's perceived expectations" (p. 500). In addition, prior bad experiences with faculty, or feelings of intimidation by faculty may also discourage students from interacting with faculty members. Along the same lines, students sometimes felt uncertain about whether faculty were actually interested in interacting with them outside—and even sometimes inside—the classroom, and thought that faculty time pressures made it difficult for them (faculty) to interact with students outside class times. Faculty personality and approachability were also important to students, as were active encouragement to participate in class, and a more interactive teaching style beyond the usual "chalk and talk" approaches. Students who felt more comfortable with faculty members inside the classroom were also more likely to approach them outside of class.

Grantham, Robinson, and Chapman (2015) also conducted a qualitative study to add to the overwhelmingly quantitative research on faculty-student interaction, which had been studied for decades. The researchers compared online submissions from undergraduate students who participated in a "Thank a Teacher" program at a public research university in the southeast, to explore the ways in which faculty-student interactions were generally conceptualized in the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) that was traditionally used to measure faculty-student interaction. Grantham et al. (2015) found that much of what students believed to be important enough to highlight in their thanks to faculty aligned with the types of faculty-student interaction contained in the NSSE, such as discussing grades or assignments with instructors,

talking about career plans with faculty/advisors, discussing ideas from readings or classes with faculty after class, getting written or oral feedback from faculty on academic performance, working on non-coursework related activities with faculty, and working on research projects with faculty that were not a required part of their programs. Additionally, per Grantham et al., students also frequently cited other more formal, passive in-class interactions with faculty in their “Thank a Teacher” submissions, such as faculty members’ demonstration of understanding, caring, enthusiasm, and respect. The importance of students feeling respected by faculty was also borne out in a separate study by Komarraju, Musulkin, and Bhattacharya (2010), which found that when students perceived that faculty members were genuinely respectful towards them, they were more likely to feel self-confident and motivated. Furthermore, students in Grantham et al.’s study also thanked teachers for expanding their knowledge through the introduction of new content, and for helping them gain new perspectives and different ways of viewing the world. Grantham et al.’s (2015) research further confirmed what prior research on faculty-student interaction had already demonstrated: that “students value the types of interactions that research also shows to benefit them the most, suggesting that there was less of a disconnect between the types of faculty behaviors that benefit students and the types of faculty behaviors that students appreciate” (p. 131).

Faculty-student interaction in the classroom. A review of the literature on faculty-student interactions revealed that there was very little research on formal classroom interactions, and how higher education classrooms influenced student outcomes (Grantham et al., 2015; Demaris & Kritsonis, 2008). However, as noted by Demaris and Kritsonis (2008), “The classroom was the central point of the higher educational structure; the social and academic

integration which occurs therein was a major feature of the learning experience” (p. 2). For many students, the classroom was often the only place where faculty and students interacted, particularly for community college students who often commuted, and who frequently experienced social and academic integration right in the college classroom (Chang, 2005; Demaris & Kritsonis, 2008; Wirt & Jaeger, 2014).

Fassinger (1995) contacted randomly sampled professors at a small, private midwestern liberal arts college who taught during a single selected class period, and who allowed her to survey their classes during the sixth week of the semester. Student responses were limited to only the class they were in at the selected time. Fassinger measured classroom interaction by asking students about the number of times they either offered comments or raised questions during a typical class period, as influenced by class traits (interaction norms and emotional climate), student traits (confidence, preparation, and comprehension), and professor traits (welcomes discussion, approachability, and supportiveness). The author found that professors’ interpersonal styles were not directly related to students’ class participation, but that professors’ cultivating of positive emotional climates had the biggest impact. Fassinger also noted that students often feared appearing unintelligent to their peers and/or their professors, and suggested that professors had students design their own norms for classroom interaction.

The issue of fear in the classroom was also explored by Cox (2009), who conducted four research studies at thirty-four community colleges over a period of five years. Noting the lack of a consistent definition of what constitutes college readiness, Cox lamented the frequent sense of disappointment and surprise that college professors expressed in their students—even those who had met entry-level requirements to enroll in college classes, and sought to explore what typical

college students experienced inside the classroom. She found that students often felt intimidated by professors' knowledge of academic subjects, as well as by their ability to assess students and assign grades. As Cox (2009) put it, "Essentially, students were afraid that the professor would irrevocably confirm their academic inadequacy" (p. 16), which could frequently feel paralyzing. Unfortunately, per Cox, students might employ quitting or dropping out of classes or college as the ultimate strategy by which to manage their academic fears, as quitting allowed them to eliminate the source of their anxiety. Nonetheless, and as had been confirmed by prior research, students were more likely to persist if they felt validated in the classroom by supportive faculty members who took an active interest in them, and who affirmed their ability to do academic work (Cox, 2009). The author further posited that faculty who created learning environments that students perceived as being encouraging, even when the coursework was challenging, made it easier for students to feel comfortable in the classroom—thereby supporting student success.

Anderson and Carta-Falsa's (2002) earlier work also supported Cox's (2009) findings. The researchers sampled 400 students enrolled in classes taught by twenty-four instructors at four learning sites of a national university in the south. Both students and faculty were invited to provide narrative responses to questions around faculty-student relationships. Anderson and Carta-Falsa found that both faculty and students desired classroom environments that were "open, supportive, comfortable, respectful, safe or non-threatening, and enjoyable" (p. 136), with openness, supportiveness, and respectfulness ranking highest. The authors also noted that classroom learning environments that involved students and faculty working together facilitated students' acquisition of content and skills, and allowed for all participants to safely and effectively exchange ideas.

Rocca (2008) explored the impact of instructor immediacy and verbal aggression on college student participation in the classroom. She defined immediacy as relating to approach and avoidance behaviors, which could be thought of as the “perceived distance between people” (Rocca, 2008, p. 24). Per Rocca, faculty who demonstrated immediacy (approachability) overwhelmingly fostered supportive classroom climates. Verbal aggression, on the other hand, had negative effects on the classroom climate, and involved using verbal and nonverbal forms of communication to establish dominance, to attack another person’s position on a topic, or to damage a person’s self-esteem. Rocca surveyed 189 undergraduate students at a large mid-Atlantic university enrolled in two large service courses. Students were asked to complete questionnaires based on the interactions they had had with faculty members in the classes they had right before the one in which they completed the questionnaires. Questionnaires included a participation measure, the Nonverbal Immediacy Measure, and a modified version of the Verbal Aggressiveness Scale. Not surprisingly, students were more likely to participate in class if they perceived their instructors as being more immediate, and were less likely to report participating in class if they perceived their instructors as being verbally aggressive. As noted by Rocca (2010),

offensive behaviors engaged in by instructors, including sarcasm and putdowns, being verbally abusive toward students, sexually harassing students, and having a negative personality had a negative impact in the classroom and on student learning. (p. 194)

The aforementioned studies reinforced the importance of students having positive experiences with faculty members inside the college classroom (Cotton & Wilson, 2006; Endo & Harpel, 1982; Kuh & Hu, 2001), as negative experiences could serve to reduce student

participation in class, or discourage students from interacting with faculty (Cox 2009; Fassinger, 1995; Kuh & Hu, 2001; Rocca, 2010).

Faculty-student interactions and race/ethnicity and gender. Kim and Sax (2007) argued, like so many researchers before and after them, that positive, interpersonal faculty-student interactions led to more favorable educational experiences, and greater academic and personal development for students. The authors, however, wanted to explore how the level of faculty-student interaction varied by students' gender, race, and first-generation and socioeconomic status (SES), as well as how the relationship between faculty-student interaction and student educational outcomes varied by those student characteristics. Kim and Sax (2007) used data provided by 30,566 undergraduate students who completed the 2006 University of California Undergraduate Experience Survey (UCUES) Core, which targeted all students and gathered information on students' background characteristics, personal and academic development, academic engagement, satisfaction, and evaluation of major; and the Academic Engagement Module, which randomly targeted 20% of the students, and collected information on students' college experiences and perceptions of the university. The authors also used three faculty-student interaction measures: (a) raising standards for acceptable effort due to high standards of a faculty member, (b) assisting faculty in research with course credit, and (c) assisting faculty in research as a volunteer. Kim and Sax (2007) found that female, Latino, African American, low SES, and first-generation students were more likely to raise their standards for acceptable effort due to high standards of a faculty member; that female and Asian students were more likely to assist faculty in research with course credit; and that male students were more likely to assist faculty in research as volunteers. Additionally, the researchers found

that raising standards for acceptable effort due to high standards of a faculty member promoted integration into the institution for all student groups, and that assisting faculty in research with course credit predicted higher grade point averages (GPAs) and degree aspirations for all groups. Nonetheless, the effect on students' increased performance standards due to high standards set by faculty was strongest for Latino and African American students, though Kim and Sax (2007) could not say for sure whether these students of color were explicitly made aware of faculty's high expectations for them as individuals, or whether these students were simply more sensitive to the perception of higher faculty standards than their peers.

Schreiner (2004) examined whether the quality and frequency of faculty-student interactions predicted learning by students' race/ethnicity. Specifically, the researcher wanted to know whether there were differences in the frequency of, and satisfaction with, interactions with faculty, and how faculty interaction predicted learning for students from the following seven different racial/ethnic groups: African American, Asian or Pacific Islander, Native American, Mexican American, Hispanic and Puerto Rican, Multiethnic, and White. Schreiner used data collected from 4,501 undergraduates (643 students from each racial/ethnic group) who completed the College Student Experiences Questionnaire (CSEQ) between 1998 to 2001, and which was drawn from a database of 20,000 mostly White students. The author found that the quality of students' relationships with faculty significantly predicted learning for all racial/ethnic groups, especially for students of color. In addition, Native American and African American students were more likely than other student groups to report frequent interactions with faculty, as well as working harder because of faculty feedback. However, these students' hard work to meet faculty expectations had no significant relationship to learning. According to Schreiner

(2004), faculty expectations conveyed to Native American and African American students tended to be qualitatively different from that conveyed to other racial/ethnic groups—especially for Black students. “The lower expectations held of African American students were conveyed by such behaviors as ignoring their participation, treating them stereotypically, and expressing impatience with their responses” (Schreiner, 2004, p. 562). Newman (2015) demonstrated the impact of stereotyping, by showing that for Black male college students, the more they became aware of racial-gender stereotypes about themselves, the less likely they were to feel a sense of belonging with faculty; and the more they felt validated by faculty, the more likely they were to feel a sense of belonging with faculty.

An earlier study of first-time undergraduate freshmen who entered a major midwestern public research institution in 1990 revealed that minority students were more likely to perceive the campus climate as being discriminatory and faculty and staff as being more prejudiced, and to report in-class experiences as being more negative than did White students (Nora & Cabrera, 1996). Further, for non-White students who lacked significant contact with faculty, race was often the determining factor (Cole, 2007). According to Cole (2007), “minority students, particularly those who experienced or perceived their college environments as racially or ethnically insensitive, were more likely to have fewer faculty-student contacts and abated academic development” (p. 251). Still, Kuh and Hu (2001) found that African American students were more likely to interact with faculty than other racial groups—a finding that was reinforced in Schreiner’s (2004) study. Yet, per Schreiner (2004), the frequency of interaction seemingly had no significant relationship to learning. Schreiner argued that increasing the frequency of faculty interactions for Native American and African American students was not enough, as they

were already spending more time with faculty than White students did. Instead, she argued, the focus must be on the quality of the faculty-student interactions for these students. Schreiner further noted that a diversification of the racial composition of faculty might enhance faculty-student interactions for students of color. Notwithstanding that, there was no doubt that a consistent conclusion of countless studies on faculty-student interaction was that more helpful and supportive faculty led to better outcomes for students. In other words, positive faculty-student interactions helped foster students' academic integration into the college community (Bean, 1985; Cox, 2009; Kim & Sax, 2007; Kuh & Hu, 2001; Tinto, 1975).

The results on gender differences in faculty-student interactions had been mixed in the literature, with some studies finding no significant difference in faculty-student interactions by sex (Brady & Eisler, 1999; Kuh & Hu, 2001; Tatum, Schwartz, Schimmoeller, & Perry, 2013), while some studies found gender differences in faculty-students interactions (Hall & Sandler, 1982; Sax, Bryant, & Harper, 2005). Hall and Sandler (1982), in their earlier and often-cited work on 'chilly' campus climates for women, noted that all faculty—male and female alike—might inadvertently communicate perceptions that limited students by gender to what might be considered appropriate behaviors and attitudes, abilities, vocations, and personal goals. Whether overt or subtle, Hall and Sandler (1982) posited that gender-based differential treatment could create a 'chilly' campus climate for women, which in turn could have damaging cumulative effects on all students, and on the very process of education.

Brady and Eisler (1999) examined the relationship between overt classroom behaviors and student perceptions of the classroom environment in terms of gender. The authors observed students (262 female and 308 male) and instructors (ten female and fourteen male) in twenty-

four classrooms across eight departments of a major university. The researchers used the observation technique for college classroom interactions (OTCCI), which was designed to measure various faculty and student behaviors, and administered a Classroom Observation Questionnaire (CAQ) to measure students' perceptions of their college classrooms, and an Instructor Survey for Classroom Equity (ISCE) to gauge instructors' monitoring of classrooms and course materials for cultural and gender biases. Both the CAQ and the ISCE were developed for the study and tested by the researchers for reliability and validity. The CAQ was a two-factor solution, with Cronbach's alpha = .84 for factor 1 (describing students' negative events or perceptions), and alpha = .78 for factor 2 (describing students' positive events or perceptions). Additionally, combining both factors explained 39.58% of the total variance, and ANOVAs performed between classrooms produced significant differences, which suggested that the instrument's validity was promising (Brady & Eisler, 1999). Also, the Cronbach's alpha for the ISCE was .79. Brady and Eisler (1999) found no statistically significant difference at alpha .05 between male and female students in terms of interactions with faculty, or in their perceptions of the classroom environment—a finding later supported by Kuh and Hu (2001), and Tatum et al. (2013). Nonetheless, Brady and Eisler's study focused on the frequency, rather than the quality, of classroom interactions, and therefore might not have picked up on more subtle forms of gender bias (e.g. tone and feedback type).

Sax, Bryant, and Harper (2005) expanded the research on faculty-student contact and gender by examining whether faculty-student interactions impacted a range of student outcomes differently for women and men. The researchers obtained data from a national longitudinal study of college students surveyed by UCLA's Higher Education Research Institute. Participants

completed the fall 1994 Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP) freshman survey that collected information on students' background characteristics, attitudes, achievements, and future goals, and the follow-up spring 1998 College Student Survey (CSS) that collected information on students' experiences in college, as well as their perceptions of college. The study sample included 17,637 mostly White students (10,901 females and 6,736 males) from 204 public and private four-year institutions across the country. Faculty-student interaction variables included measures of general faculty support, and individual items such as hours spent talking to faculty outside of class, and having faculty take students' comments seriously. Sax et al. (2005) found that female students reported having more frequent and more positive interactions with faculty than their male peers, though both genders experienced similar effects in areas such as scholarly self-confidence, leadership ability, degree aspirations, and retention. Interestingly, interactions with faculty outside of class led to greater gains in cultural awareness, commitment to promoting racial understanding, and liberal political views for male students. Sax et al. posited that the nature of faculty-student interactions for male and female students may account for these results for males; or possibly, that men were more likely to identify with, and relate to, male faculty who still comprised the majority of faculty in the United States. Lastly, and most concerning, Sax et al. (2005) found that female students who felt that faculty did not take their comments in class seriously reported larger than average declines in math ability, degree aspirations, and self-rated physical health. As Tatum et al. (2013) put it, "The complexity of gender dynamics in the college classroom stems from multiple psychological constructs including gender stereotypes, stereotype threat, and differential responses to male and female authority" (p. 764). The climate of the classroom might bring about certain situational cues that

faculty and students responded to in ways that were gender-stereotypical, eventually leading to what Hall and Sandler (1982) referred to as ‘chilly’ climates.

Faculty-student interaction and the community college. The benefits of positive faculty-student interactions for all students have been clearly detailed in the preceding discussion, including gains in student academic achievement, college satisfaction, intellectual and personal development, and college persistence. The improved outcomes accrued to students from positive faculty-student interactions further bolstered the claim that the quality of interactions between faculty and students at the community college was critically important to these students’ integration, as the majority of contact took place in the community college classroom, due to the nature and circumstances of the community college student (Alicia, Suarez-Orozco, Singh, Darbes, & Abrica, 2016; Chang, 2005; Lundberg, 2014; McClenney & Peterson, 2006; Wirt & Jaeger, 2014).

Barnett (2008) found that faculty validation inside the community college classroom contributed to higher levels of student integration (a sense of competent membership), and to a greater intent to persist in college (by returning the next semester). Three hundred and thirty-three students enrolled in twenty-two introductory college-level English classes at a diverse urban community college during the Spring 2006 semester were surveyed to get a sense of the extent to which they felt validated by the college faculty, and intended to return to the college the subsequent semester. The results of multiple linear regression indicated that higher rates of faculty validation strongly predicted higher levels of integration, and modestly predicted a greater likelihood that students would express intent to return to the college the next semester.

Furthermore, higher faculty validation was significantly more likely to predict a stronger intent to persist in college for Hispanic students and women (Barnett, 2008).

McClenney and Peterson (2006) found that there was a gap between faculty's perception of student engagement in class discussions, and the level of frequency at which students reported that they participated in class. The authors reviewed data from the 2005 Community College Faculty Survey of Student Engagement (CCFSSE), and the Community College Survey of Student Engagement (CCSSE), which were administered nationwide to gather data on faculty teaching practices and perceptions about student's educational experiences, and students' perceptions of institutional environment and student behaviors respectively. McClenney and Peterson found that a great majority of community college faculty used lectures as the primary instructional method in their classrooms, with about one-third of them lecturing for at least half of their class times. In addition, community college faculty tended to perceive higher levels of classroom engagement among their students than the students reported about their own engagement. For example, eighty-three percent of faculty believed their students asked questions or contributed to class discussions "often" or "very often," with just sixty-five percent of students reporting that they participated at the same levels of frequency. As McClenney and Peterson (2006) put it, this generally meant that faculty judgements were based on the "*best* student experiences rather than the *typical* student experience" (p. 27).

McClenney and Peterson (2006) also noted that interactions between community college students and faculty outside the classroom was limited: a finding that had come up over and over again in studies related to faculty-student interaction and undergraduate students in general (e.g. Chang, 2005; Demaris & Kritsonis, 2008; Wirt & Jaeger, 2014). According to the authors,

almost half of all community college students (49%) reported that they never spoke to faculty outside of class about course-related matters, with the number being even higher for part-time students. Alicea et al. (2016) supported the notion that the bulk of the nontraditional community college student experience took place in the classroom, arguing that the community college classroom was thus a critical context to comprehend, and that it was “imperative that we better understand what community college classroom-level engagement dimensions look like and how they may influence student-level academic outcomes” (p. 776). Wirt and Jaeger (2014) randomly sampled community college students who completed the 2007 CCSSE in 279 community colleges in forty states, in an effort to explore the variables that might predict faculty-student interaction at these institutions. The researchers found that students with higher GPAs, those who participated in orientation programs/courses, and those who participated in learning communities were more likely to engage with faculty. (Community college students in learning community cohorts enrolled in two or more classes together, and were taught by a team of faculty from different disciplines.) Still, the majority of faculty-student engagement took place inside the classroom among community college students (Wirt & Jaeger, 2014).

Hagedorn, Rodriguez, Hocesvar, and Fillpot (2000) explored gender differences in faculty-student interactions at the community college by surveying 1,359 students who attended a medium-sized community college on the West Coast. Participants were initially asked about their demographic characteristics and educational attitudes, and later in the semester about social integration variables. Again, and in keeping with previous studies, Hagedorn et al. (2000) found that the majority of community college students in their study had little to no contact with faculty members outside the classroom. Also, female students found it slightly easier to talk with faculty

about career plans and to develop close relations with faculty, as well as tended to report higher satisfaction levels with their faculty members. Moreover, Chang (2005) surveyed 5,000 students at the nine campuses of the Los Angeles Community College District during the spring 2001 term to determine the quality and frequency of faculty-student interactions on 2-year campuses, and especially for students of color. The author's results were similar to that of other research conducted on faculty-student interaction: a significant number of community college students did not frequently interact with faculty outside the classroom. In addition, African American community college students most frequently interacted with faculty, followed by Whites and Latinos. This result for African American students in particular had been supported by several other studies (Kuh & Hu, 2001; Schreiner, 2004). Chang (2005) also found that Asian/Pacific Islander students who perceived personal racial difficulties were significantly less likely than other racial/ethnic groups to interact with community college faculty. Lastly, and most importantly for this current research, Chang (2005) found that community college students, regardless of race, were most likely to interact with their faculty members by "speaking up and engaging during class discussion" (p. 783), and were less likely to meet with them during scheduled office hours.

The foregoing discussion clearly demonstrated the importance of positive faculty-student interactions inside the community college classroom, in terms of these students' academic/social integration and college persistence (Alicia et al., 2016; Barnett, 2008; Chang, 2005; Hagedorn et al., 2000). When these students interacted with welcoming, supportive, and inclusive faculty members, they were likely to become more academically and socially integrated into the college, as most interactions with faculty for community college students took place inside the college

classroom (Chang, 2005; Lundberg, 2014; McClenney & Peterson, 2006; Wirt & Jaeger, 2014).

The discussion also established that experiencing racial and gender microaggressions could have serious physical, emotional, mental, and cognitive effects on the recipients of such microaggressions (Nadal et al., 2013; Salvatore & Shelton, 2007; Sue, 2010). There was, however, a gap in the literature regarding how community college freshman students' perceptions of faculty classroom racial and gender microaggressions directed towards them might be related to their risk of dropping out. The study therefore examined the following quantitative research questions:

1. Is there a statistically significant difference between the intent to persist of non-White community college freshmen and White community college freshmen, at a significance level of alpha .05?
2. Is there a statistically significant difference between the intent to persist of female community college freshmen and male community college freshmen, at a significance level of alpha .05?
3. Is intent to persist statistically significantly different for community college freshmen of different races, by individual racial groups, at a significance level of alpha .05?
4. Is there a statistically significant difference between non-White community college freshmen's overall perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and that of White community college freshmen, at a significance level of alpha .05?

5. Is perception of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom statistically significantly different for community college freshmen of different races/ethnicities, by individual racial groups, at a significance level of alpha .05?
6. Is there a statistically significant difference between female community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and that of male community college freshmen, at a significance level of alpha .05?

The second set of quantitative research questions examined relationships between intent to persist, and community college freshmen's perceptions of faculty classroom microaggressions:

7. What is the relationship between White community college freshmen's perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom and their intent to persist at the community college, at a significance level of alpha .05?
8. What is the relationship between non-White community college freshmen's overall perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom and their intent to persist at the community college, at a significance level of alpha .05?
9. What is the relationship between non-White community college freshmen's perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom and their intent to persist at the community college, by individual racial groups, at a significance level of alpha .05?
10. What is the relationship between female community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and their intent to persist at the community college, at a significance level of alpha .05?

11. What is the relationship between male community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and their intent to persist at the community college, at a significance level of alpha .05?

The following qualitative research question was also explored:

1. What are freshmen community college students' perceptions of in-class interactions with faculty based on the students' race/ethnicity and gender?

Summary and Conclusions

Tinto's (1975) interactionalist model of student persistence was found to have predictive validity for community college students' persistence or exit outcomes, especially for the aspect of academic integration (Halpin, 1990; Pascarella & Chapman 1983). In addition, several studies provided evidence of the benefit of positive classroom faculty-student interactions on community college student outcomes, especially given that a significant number of community college students did not interact with faculty outside the classroom (Alicia et al., 2016; Chang, 2005; Lundberg, 2014; Wirt & Jaeger, 2014). Further, African American and Native American college students were more likely than other groups to frequently interact with faculty inside the classroom, though such interactions did not generally lead to improved academic outcomes (Chang, 2005; Kuh & Hu, 2001; Schreiner, 2004).

In-class faculty racial and gender microaggressions evidently served as threats to positive faculty-student interactions at the community college. Microaggressions were most often implicit in nature, and harder to detect and to change than were explicit expressions of bias (Sue, 2010). Further, though overt racism and sexism had mostly gone underground (Fiarman, 2016; Nadal et al., 2013), daily, subtle acts of microaggressions persisted for women, and for people of color.

Experiencing microaggressions could have serious physical, emotional, mental, and cognitive effects on the recipients of such microaggressions (Nadal et al., 2013; Salvatore & Shelton, 2007; Sue, 2010). For their part, faculty classroom microaggressions communicated aggressive and invalidating messages to students that could affect their educational outcomes (Boysen, Vogel, Cope, & Hubbard, 2009; Diaz-Espinoza, 2015; Kwan, 2015; McCabe, 2009; Minikel-Lacocque, 2013). Also, at the community college level, the perpetrators of microaggressions were overwhelmingly faculty, who tended to attack the competence and intelligence of students, and to publicly shame them, mostly during teacher-centered class times (Casanova et al., 2018; Suarez-Orozco et al., 2015). The most frequent student-as-target responses were to disengage, retreat into silence, or to become visibly uncomfortable (Casanova et al., 2018).

Suarez-Orozco et al. (2015) maintained that emerging research indicated that there was a link between microaggressions and hostile and invalidating learning environments for students. What was not fully understood was how these hostile and invalidating classroom environments that were created due to acts of faculty microaggressions were influencing community college freshmen's intent to persist beyond the first year. It stood to reason, however, that in-class faculty microaggressive behaviors towards community college students that was invalidating could have the opposite effect than when students felt validated by faculty. In other words, in-class faculty racial and gender microaggressions might be negatively related to the intent to persist of community college freshmen.

In Chapter 3, the researcher identifies the study design, methodology, and data analysis plan that were used to explore the important topic of classroom faculty-student interactions at the

community college that involved microaggressive behavior on the part of faculty, and how such interactions might be influencing community college freshman students' intent to persist.

CHAPTER III

THE RESEARCH METHOD

The purposes of this convergent mixed methods study were to: (a) examine the relationship, if any, between community college freshmen's perceptions of in-class faculty racial and gender microaggressions directed at students, and their intent to persist, (b) examine whether differences existed in the racial and gender groups' intent to persist at the community college, and (c) seek to determine whether differences existed in how faculty classroom microaggressions were perceived by racial and gender groups. Additionally, the study explored community college freshmen's perceptions of their experiences with classroom faculty-student interactions, using a convergent mixed-methods approach to inquiry. Lastly, the study also sought to discover implications for practice for faculty, educational leaders, and other practitioners.

For the purpose of this study, a community college student's intent to persist was measured using the Institutional Commitment (IC) and Degree Commitment (DC) sub-scales of the College Persistence Questionnaire (CPQ/CPQ-V2) that aimed at predicting student attrition—i.e., whether the student returned to his/her institution for the second year (Beck & Davidson, 2010; Davidson et al., 2009). Davidson et al. (2009) found that the CPQ had predictive validity [$\chi^2(6, N = 257) = 38.03, p < .001$, Nagelkerke $R^2 = .19$], with retention as the outcome and the predictors being the mean scores on the six CPQ factors. In addition, per Davidson et al. (2009), Institutional Commitment was the single best and most reliable predictor of retention [$\chi^2(1, N = 257) = 16.79, p < .001$]; and Institutional Commitment and Degree Commitment scores were also fairly stable over time, when test-retest data were collected across a five-week interval ($r = .78, p < .0001$, and $r = .67, p < .0001$ respectively).

The researcher begins by discussing the research design and rationale, followed by an in-depth description of the methodology, sampling and data collection procedures, instrumentation, and data analysis methods. Threats to validity and ethical considerations are also considered, followed by an overall chapter summary at the end.

Research Design and Rationale

The research study employed a convergent mixed-methods approach to inquiry in order to answer the research questions from a pragmatic perspective, which focused on the research problem, and that used all available resources to understand the problem (Creswell, 2013).

For the quantitative portion of the study, the variables were: (a) community college freshmen's perceptions of in-class faculty racial microaggression as measured by the CB-REMA scale, which was a modified version of the School-Based Racial and Ethnic Microaggression (SB-REMA) Scale (Keels et al., 2017); (b) community college freshmen's perceptions of in-class faculty gender microaggression as measured by the MAWS-C, which was a modified version of the Microaggression Against Women Scale (MAWS; Owen et al., 2010); and (c) community college freshman students' intent to persist as measured by the IC/DC subscales of the CPQ/CPQ-V2 (Beck & Davidson, 2010; Davidson et al., 2009), as the study sought to answer the following quantitative research questions:

1. Is there a statistically significant difference between the intent to persist of non-White community college freshmen and White community college freshmen, at a significance level of alpha .05?

2. Is there a statistically significant difference between the intent to persist of female community college freshmen and male community college freshmen, at a significance level of alpha .05?
3. Is intent to persist statistically significantly different for community college freshmen of different races, by individual racial groups, at a significance level of alpha .05?
4. Is there a statistically significant difference between non-White community college freshmen's overall perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and that of White community college freshmen, at a significance level of alpha .05?
5. Is perception of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom statistically significantly different for community college freshmen of different races/ethnicities, by individual racial groups, at a significance level of alpha .05?
6. Is there a statistically significant difference between female community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and that of male community college freshmen, at a significance level of alpha .05?

The second set of quantitative research questions examined relationships between intent to persist, and community college freshmen's perceptions of faculty classroom microaggressions:

7. What is the relationship between White community college freshmen's perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom and their intent to persist at the community college, at a significance level of alpha .05?

8. What is the relationship between non-White community college freshmen's overall perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom and their intent to persist at the community college, at a significance level of alpha .05?
9. What is the relationship between non-White community college freshmen's perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom and their intent to persist at the community college, by individual racial groups, at a significance level of alpha .05?
10. What is the relationship between female community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and their intent to persist at the community college, at a significance level of alpha .05?
11. What is the relationship between male community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and their intent to persist at the community college, at a significance level of alpha .05?

Additionally, for the qualitative portion of the study, the following research question was explored:

1. What are freshmen community college students' perceptions of in-class interactions with faculty based on the students' race/ethnicity and gender?

A mixed methods research approach was used because the researcher wanted to achieve breadth and depth of understanding, through combining the strengths of both the quantitative and qualitative data collection and data analysis methods, integrating the two forms of data and their results, and framing research procedures within theory and philosophy (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). By using the mixed methods design, the researcher operated on the basic assumption that

the combination of both quantitative and qualitative methods would provide a more comprehensive understanding of the research problem and questions than either method could do on its own. According to Creswell (2015), using the mixed methods design allowed for the benefits of quantitative analysis in terms of summarizing data and describing trends, and that of qualitative analysis in terms of obtaining multiple perspectives on the topic and providing a complex picture of the situation. In addition, mixed methods research allowed the researcher to employ triangulation, which meant that she could “improve [her] inquiries by collecting and converging (or integrating) different kinds of data bearing on the same phenomenon” (Creswell, 2015, p. 538). Surprising or unexpected results in the quantitative phase could be further explained by qualitative data collection.

The study was approached by the researcher from a pragmatic philosophical perspective, as she believed individuals’ experiences shaped whom they were, and affected the way they both saw the world, and sought to shape the world. Ontologically, the researcher believed that there could be both singular and multiple realities; hence, her approach was one of flexibility and understanding. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) argued that pragmatism was an ideal philosophical partner for a mixed methods research approach that sought to find the best opportunities for answering the research question. A mixed methods approach to research design was therefore selected for the current study, as it was arguably the best way to understand the research problem. Additionally, the research study linked Tinto’s (1975) influential interactionalist model of student persistence with Sue’s (2010) more recent work on the concept of microaggressions, in order to advance our understanding of how community college students

perceived classroom faculty-student interactions, and whether such interactions might influence these students' outcomes.

Tinto's (1975) interactionalist model, which served as the theoretical framework for this study, was widely used in research that explored the relationship between a student's integration into an educational institution (including through faculty-student interactions), and his or her dropout decision (Barnett, 2008; Kuh et al., 2006). According to Tinto (1975), students were more likely to commit to educational institutions, and to their goal of completing college (not dropping out), if they were academically and socially integrated into the institution. Sue's (2010) microaggression taxonomy and themes served as a conceptual framework for this research study, and helped inform the selection of survey instruments, as well as the development of open-ended survey questions. The design of the research facilitated an examination of community college freshmen's intent to persist, as well as their perceptions of in-class faculty microaggressive behaviors, by racial and gender groups. In addition, such design allowed for the exploration of how participants' perceptions of in-class faculty microaggressions might relate to their intent to persist, in keeping with Tinto's (1975) theory that the quality of faculty-student interactions would influence students' decisions to stay in, or drop out of, college. (Appendix A lays out a concept map of the study design, which illustrates the interactions among the concepts of classroom faculty-student interaction, persistence theory, and racial/gender microaggressions.)

Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) identified three basic designs for mixed methods research: (a) convergent (or concurrent, parallel), in which the researcher combined or compared results from quantitative and qualitative data analysis to obtain a more complete understanding of the problem; (b) explanatory sequential (or explanatory), in which research took place in two

distinct phases, and in which quantitative data were first collected and analyzed, followed by the collection and analysis of qualitative data, to explain or expand upon quantitative results from the first phase; and (c) exploratory sequential (or exploratory), in which research took place in three phases, and in which qualitative data were first collected and analyzed, followed by the development and design of a quantitative feature that was based on the qualitative results, and then by the quantitative testing of the new feature.

The current study used a convergent mixed methods design to answer the quantitative and qualitative research questions. The convergent mixed methods design was chosen because it combined results from the quantitative and qualitative data analyses, to obtain a more complete understanding of how freshman students' perceptions of in-class faculty microaggressions might correlate with community college students' intent to persist, as well as how students perceived these in class faculty-student interactions. The convergent mixed methods approach also allowed the researcher to save time by gathering both types of data (quantitative and qualitative) in one visit. In addition, the researcher used what Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) described as the "questionnaire variant" convergent mixed methods design, in which both open-ended and closed-ended questions were asked during the survey process, and in which the "results from the open-ended questions were used to confirm or validate the results from the closed-ended questions" (p. 73). The qualitative data collected also gave the researcher an opportunity to discover emergent themes and interesting quotes that could help us understand the quantitative research findings.

Role of the Researcher

As noted previously, a convergent mixed methods design allowed the researcher to combine or compare results from quantitative and qualitative data analysis to obtain a more

complete understanding of the research problem. For the quantitative portion of the research study, the researcher stood apart from the study, and controlled her biases so they were not expressed in the study. In other words, the researcher assumed an etic (or outsider) perspective. She also used deductive methods to test theories, specify important variables, and make comparisons among groups (Creswell, 2013). Further, when analyzing the qualitative data, the researcher filtered the emic (or insider) perspectives of the students as expressed in their responses to the open-ended survey questions, through an etic perspective that aimed to develop an overall understanding of how freshman students perceived in-class faculty-student interactions at the community college. Also, though the researcher had experience with faculty-student interactions inside the community college classroom, she bracketed, or set aside as much as possible, her own personal experiences so she could look at the topic from a fresh perspective (Creswell, 2013).

Philosophical Worldview

The term ‘worldview’ came from the German word *weltanschauung*, which means ‘world perception’, and which was popularized by German philosopher Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel (Butts, 2016). Everyone’s worldview was unique, as individual experiences varied. Butts (2016) provided a comprehensive definition of the term worldview:

Worldview simply refers to the way in which one perceives the world and its inhabitants.

It was the lens through which knowledge was filtered. A worldview was shaped by people’s home environment, experiences, education, and the culture of their hometown and country. A worldview includes values and morals, and what one believes was favorable or unfavorable. A worldview encompasses perceptions about what was real and

what was fictitious. It also defines one's logic and reasoning, such as what the result of an action might be...A worldview was one's perspective of one's place in the world in relation to others. It can be summed up as one's perception of reality. (para 1)

Though the terms philosophical worldview and paradigm were used interchangeably, Mittwede (2012) believed that, while paradigms might resemble worldviews, they did not go so far as to claim to "inform the whole of life" (p. 23). Research paradigms, per Mittwede, rested on what the individual believed about reality and how it may be understood, and were basically matrices containing assumptions that were deeply held. Still, a researcher's view of what constituted truth and knowledge guided the way s/he thought and felt about society, and about him/herself, as well as framed his/her view of the world around him/her (Chilisa & Kawulich, 2012). Paradigms were, therefore, informed by philosophical assumptions and beliefs about the nature of reality (ontology), the nature of knowledge (epistemology), and the role of values (axiology), and influenced a researcher's methodological belief, or approach to inquiry (Chilisa & Kawulich, 2012; Creswell, 2013).

This research study employed a pragmatic philosophy and research paradigm, which focused on the research problem, and which used all available approaches to understand the problem. To the pragmatist, reality was both singular and multiple—whatever was practically useful and whatever "worked"—and could be known both deductively and inductively (Creswell, 2013; Petersen & Gencel, 2013). The pragmatist was not committed to a particular philosophy or view of reality, but adopted multiple axiological stances, maintained distance from or closeness to participants, and combined quantitative and qualitative methods of inquiry in order to understand the research problem. In other words, the pragmatist believed that multiple forms

of reality existed, that etic and emic perceptions could co-exist in a single study, that values were brought to the forefront and recognized as influencing the research process, and that various forms of qualitative and quantitative data could be blended to create a representative model. The pragmatic researcher thus engaged in concurrent or sequential mixed methods research as s/he saw fit, being careful to integrate the data at different states of the research inquiry so as to get to what “worked” (Creswell, 2009). As noted previously, the current research study was approached from a pragmatic philosophical perspective.

Method

Population

The target population for this research study was first-time, full-time freshman community college students who started at the community college the previous fall semester, and who were enrolled at the community college institution during the spring term when the study was conducted. Only about six out of ten community college students who begin their studies in the fall term returned the following fall semester without transferring to another institution; in other words, about 40 percent dropped out of the community college after their first year (NSC, 2017). The target population was about 955 students at the Northeastern community college from which participants were recruited for this study (hereinafter referred to as “Northeastern Community College” or “NCC”).

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

Cohen et al. (2000) listed four key components of a sampling design as: (a) the sample size, (b) the representativeness and parameters of the sample, (c) access to the sample, and (d) the sampling strategy to be used. Per Cohen et al. (2000), a poor sampling design could lead to a

seriously unrepresentative sample, and thus unreliable results. In addition, the researcher should work to obtain a minimum sample size that most accurately represented the population being studied. The researcher also needed to consider how well a particular sample represented the population being studied if it were to be a valid sample, and to clearly define which members of the population were eligible to be included in the sample (sampling frame). For this study, matriculated first-time, full-time students who began their studies at the medium-sized Northeastern Community College (NCC) during the fall 2018 semester, and who were registered full-time for the spring 2019 semester, were surveyed. In order to make valid inferences in this study, a *minimum* sample size of 274 participants was calculated (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970). The researcher, however, used convenience sampling to obtain 311 eligible participants—which was more than the minimum number required. Faculty with whom the researcher was familiar were contacted directly, in order to obtain their permission to administer paper surveys during class times.

The current research study used convenience (or opportunity) sampling, in which the sample that was most easily accessible was selected. Members of the population included in the sampling frame were: (a) first-time full-time students who began their higher education studies at the community college during the previous fall semester, and (b) who were currently enrolled full-time at the same institution for the spring semester in which the study was conducted. Additionally, as noted before, the target population was about 955 first-time, full-time freshmen students between the ages of 18-23, who were registered during the spring semester in which the study was conducted. Per Krejcie and Morgan (1970), the calculated minimum sample size for the study was 274 participants. However, 311 eligible participants were obtained for this

research study, which was more than the required minimum sample size. Further, for testing the null hypotheses, a significance level of $\alpha = .05$ was used in this study, as it was the conventional level used in statistical research for decades (Cohen, 1988; Kim, 2015).

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

Participants were recruited, using convenience (or opportunity) sampling, from among freshman students who began at a medium-sized community college in the Northeastern United States during the previous fall term, and who were enrolled for their second (spring) semester as full-time students. The researcher worked with the Institutional Review Boards (IRB) of the University of Bridgeport and Northeastern Community College (NCC) to obtain approvals to conduct the research study. (See Appendix I for a copy of the IRB approval letter from the University of Bridgeport.) Study participants were provided with the basic elements of informed consent, which included: (a) an explanation of the research, (b) a description of known risks, (c) a description of any benefit that the participant could reasonably expect, (d) a statement on how confidentiality was maintained, and also of their right to voluntarily withdraw at any time (Creswell, 2013). Participants were recruited from among a pool of freshman students who met the following criteria: (a) first-time, full-time (12 or more credits) college student during the previous fall semester, and (b) enrolled during the spring semester for a full-time course load. The researcher worked with faculty who taught classes containing eligible participants, and some faculty members offered extra credit to full-time students who chose to participate in the research study.

Paper-and-pencil surveys were administered to 311 eligible participants (32.6% of the population being studied), during class times. Information on informed consent was presented to

participants, prior to their receiving the paper surveys. Study participants filled out a demographic survey that collected information on students' gender, age, racial-ethnic identity, place of birth, first generation status, credit registration status, and high school graduation status. This was followed by the Institutional Commitment and Degree Commitment subscales (Appendix F) of the College Persistence Questionnaire (CPQ/ CPQ-V2; Beck & Davidson, 2010; Davidson et al., 2009), which measured the 'intent to persist' variable; the Classroom-Based Racial and Ethnic Microaggression (CB-REMA) Scale (Appendix C), which was a questionnaire that indicated the level of participants' perceived racial microaggression by faculty in the classroom, and which was a modified version of the School-Based Racial and Ethnic Microaggression Scale (SB-REMA; Keels et al., 2017); the Microaggression Against Women in the Classroom (MAWS-C) Scale (Appendix E), which was a questionnaire that indicated the level of participants' perceived gender microaggression by faculty in the classroom, and which was a modified version of the Microaggression Against Women Scale (MAWS; Owen et al., 2010); and a brief three-question open-ended questionnaire focused on students' classroom interactions with faculty, in which participants were asked (a) "Do you like the way your professors interact with you in the classroom, during regularly scheduled class times? Why or why not?"; (b) "Please describe a time when you were made to feel put down, slighted, insulted, or inferior by your faculty members inside the classroom, either verbally or nonverbally, and during your regularly scheduled class times. Why do you think that happened?"; and (c) "Please use this space to share any other experiences that you have had with your faculty members, both positive and negative, inside the classroom and during your regularly scheduled class times." The study instruments were administered in the classrooms and at one sitting. Further, consent

text was read to participants before the survey instruments were administered, and participants were informed that taking the survey after the verbal consent text was read would indicate their consent to participate in the study. Of the 311 eligible participants surveyed, 100% responded to the closed-ended survey questions, and 84.2% (262) responded in some way to one or more of the three open-ended questions. In several instances, participants limited their open-ended responses to one word only (such as “never” or “sometimes”).

Each research data collection session lasted no more than twenty minutes, at which point the participants were presented with a debriefing statement that thanked them for their participation, and that provided brief details on the research study, an explanation of how the data would be used, and an opportunity to be informed of the results of the study. The researcher also provided her contact information (email), as well as contact information for the IRB in the case of ethical concerns. Student participants were also provided with the opportunity to enter their email addresses into a drawing for three (3) \$25 Amazon gift cards.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

This study used seven short instruments discussed below: (a) a Demographic Questionnaire, (b) the Degree Commitment and Institutional Commitment Subscales of the CPQ/CPQ-V2 (Beck & Davidson, 2010; Davidson et al., 2009); (c) the Classroom-Based Racial and Ethnic Microaggression (CB-REMA) Scale, (d) the Microaggression Against Women in the Classroom (MAWS-C) Scale, (e) the School-Based Racial and Ethnic Microaggression (SB-REMA) Scale (Keels et al., 2017), (f) the Microaggression Against Women (MAWS) Scale (Owen et al., 2010), and (g) a brief three-question Faculty-Student Interaction Open-Ended Survey.

Demographic questionnaire. Participants completed a demographic questionnaire that allowed them to identify their gender, age, racial-ethnic identity, place of birth, first generation status, credit registration status, and high school graduation status. Participants were asked to directly enter their age, and were given the option of entering a gender status that was not male or female. Responses from students who identified as neither male nor female were excluded from study results, as a participant's gender was necessary for this study. In addition, in terms of race, participants were asked to check the boxes with which they most identified, and were given the opportunity to self-identify their own race. Also, to identify Latino/a students, a separate question asked participants if they were Hispanic or Latino/a. The racial-ethnic and gender identities of participants were important to this study in terms of how in-class faculty microaggressions were experienced and perceived by these groups. As such, two participants who listed themselves as "other" in terms of gender, and three whose race could not be determined (two indicated they were "mixed" and one said he was "Caribbean-Irish"), were excluded from the study.

College Persistence Questionnaire (CPQ). The CPQ included factors that were integral to Tinto's (1975) and other retention and attrition models, and has been shown to demonstrate predictive validity in terms of whether students returned to their institutions for the second year (Davidson, Beck, & Milligan, 2009). Davidson et al. administered the newly-developed CPQ to 2,022 undergraduate students at Angelo State University, Appalachian State University, Greenville Technical Community College, and Troy University-Montgomery. Both Angelo State and Troy were four-year, primarily commuter colleges and Appalachian State was four-year residential. The CPQ consisted of fifty-three questions across six scales or factors: Academic

Integration, Social Integration, Support Services Satisfaction, Degree Commitment, Institutional Commitment, and Academic Conscientiousness. Davidson et al. (2009) assessed validity using a direct logistic regression, and found that the CPQ had predictive validity [$\chi^2(6, N = 257) = 38.03$, $p < .001$, Nagelkerke $R^2 = .19$], with retention as the outcome and the predictors being the mean scores on the six CPQ factors. Institutional Commitment was also the single best and most reliable predictor of retention [$\chi^2(1, N = 257) = 16.79$, $p < .001$]; and Institutional Commitment and Degree Commitment scores were also fairly stable over time when test-retest data were collected across a five-week interval ($r = .78$, $p < .0001$, and $r = .67$, $p < .0001$ respectively). Further, The CPQ also produced a statistically significant increment in the model's ability to predict retention [$\chi^2(6, N = 257) = 31.56$, $p < .001$], when compared against a model that used high school rank and standardized SAT/ACT test scores alone [$\chi^2(2, N = 257) = 17.22$, $p < .001$]. The CPQ was scored using a five-point Likert scale, and student responses were converted on a favorability continuum that ranged from -2 to +2.

CPQ-V2, institutional commitment and degree commitment. Beck and Davidson (2010) subsequently developed a second, fifty-question version of the CPQ (CPQ-V2), which expanded the student experiences factors to ten: Academic Integration, Financial Strain, Social Integration, Degree Commitment, Collegiate Stress, Advising, Scholastic Conscientiousness, Institutional Commitment, Academic Motivation, and Academic Efficacy. Like the CPQ, the CPQ-V2 also contained a Student Background Form that collected information on demographic and family items, work and financial resources, and reasons for attending college. The CPQ-V2 questions were scored like the CPQ on a five-point Likert scale, and by converting student responses on a

favorability continuum that ranged from -2 (e.g. “very unlikely to reenroll here next semester”) to +2 (e.g. “very likely to reenroll here next semester”).

Key aspects of Institutional Commitment (IC) were loyalty, intention to reenroll, and confidence in school choice; and key aspects of Degree Commitment (DC) were the value and personal importance placed on degree completion by students and their supportive network, as well as the sense of certainty in degree attainment (Beck & Davidson, 2010; Davidson et al., 2009). Beck & Davidson (2010) performed a series of multiple regressions upon the IC scores of 238 Esperanza University students who took the CPQ during the fall of 2009, and found that the IC scores had high concurrent validity when regressed on the relevant individual items in the Student Background and Student Experiences forms (except for items used to form the IC scale). The results were statistically significant: $F(69, 168) = 2.93$, $p < .001$, $R = .74$, $R^2 = .55$ (Beck & Davidson, 2010). Further, the IC and DC scores were found to have acceptable internal reliability coefficients when the IC/DC scales of the CPQ-V2 were administered to 1,257 students at two universities: Degree Commitment $\alpha = .77$; Institutional Commitment $\alpha = .79$. (Davidson & Beck, 2018).

The Institutional Commitment and Degree Commitment scales were therefore used in this research to measure community college freshmen’s intent to persist (STIP) beyond the Spring semester. This was important, as the current study examined the relationship between community college freshmen’s perceptions of in-class microaggressions by faculty, and these students’ intent to persist at the community college. The Degree Commitment Scale had six items (e.g. “At this moment in time, how strong would you say your commitment was to earning a college degree, here or elsewhere?”), and the Institutional Commitment Scale had four items

(e.g. “How likely was it that you will reenroll here next semester?”). Student responses were converted on a favorability continuum that ranged from -2 (e.g. “very unlikely to reenroll”) to +2 (e.g. “likely to reenroll”). For the ten items on the ordinal IC and DC scales, the maximum total score was 20, and the minimum total score was -20. Students who selected “neutral” for all their responses earned total scores of zero. Students whose total scores fell above 0 were viewed as intending to persist, and students whose total scores fell below 0 were seen as not intending to persist—i.e., dropping out and not returning for the following fall semester. (See Appendix G for permission from the developer to use the CPQ instrument and subscales in this study.)

School-Based Racial and Ethnic Microaggression (SB-REMA) Scale. Keels, Durkee, and Hope (2017) developed and validated a scale to measure students’ perceptions of their experiences in the context of school-based racial and ethnic macroaggressions (SB-REMA). Keels et al. (2017) noted that current measures of racial microaggressions were not specific to the school context, and did not capture microaggressions that were likely to occur in the classroom for racial and ethnic minority students. Instead, they measured microaggressions experienced by racial minorities in everyday life, and did not focus on racial microaggressions experienced in educational settings. Keels et al (2017) used data from the Minority College Cohort study, which was a longitudinal study of 221 Black and 312 Latinx students from five historically White universities in the Midwest, who began college fall 2013. Data were collected in six Waves: Waves 1 and 4 during the beginning months of the fall 2013 and fall 2014 terms; Waves 2 and 5 after the winter breaks; and Waves 3 and 6 at the close of the two academic years. The SB-REMA scale was developed using items from the Racial Microaggressions Scale (RMAS) developed by Torres-Harding, Andrade, and Romero Diaz (2012), and an unpublished

measure on racial microaggressions by Harwood, Huntt, Mendenhall, and Lewis (2012) that had high factor loadings and strong face validity (Keels et al., 2017). Further, during Waves 1 and 3, participants were asked about their experiences with racial microaggressions during high school and over the first year respectively.

Exploratory factor analysis using principal component analysis on Wave 1 data resulted in a three-factor solution of fourteen microaggressions that explained 24.1% of the scale's variance, with Academic Inferiority explaining 9.2%, Expectations of Aggression explaining 7.7%, and Stereotypical Misrepresentations explaining 7.2% of total variance. Academic Inferiority measured being made to feel intellectually inferior; Expectations of Aggression measured assumptions that non-White students would behave aggressively; and Stereotypical Misrepresentations measured denial of individuality and racial obstacles. Further, all subscales were significantly correlated with each other at each Wave, with the correlations increasing from Waves 1 to 3—Wave 1: $r = .54 - .64$; Wave 3: $r = .64 - .70$ at $p < 0.05$ (Keels et al., 2017). Additionally, confirmatory factor analysis of the three-factor solution using Wave 3 data indicated a close fit, $\chi^2(68) = 137$, $p < .001$, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .050, 90% CI [.038, .062]. The goodness of fit using Wave 3 data for Black, Latinx, female and male students was also good, with high internal reliability at both Wave 1 for Academic Inferiority (Black students $\alpha = .92$; Latinx students $\alpha = .92$) and Wave 3 (Black students $\alpha = .92$; Latinx students $\alpha = .92$); strong internal reliability at both Wave 1 for Expectations of Aggression (Black students $\alpha = .80$; Latinx students $\alpha = .82$) and Wave 3 (Black students $\alpha = .78$; Latinx students $\alpha = .88$); and moderate internal reliability at both Wave 1 for Stereotypical Misrepresentations (Black students $\alpha = .78$; Latinx students $\alpha = .77$) and Wave 3 (Black students

$\alpha = .71$; Latinx students $\alpha = .74$). According to Keels et al. (2017), “The intercorrelations among the subscales show that they were related yet distinct enough to be examined separately” (p. 1336). The SB-REMA scale was scored on a three-point Likert scale, with ‘never’ = 1, ‘sometimes’ = 2, and ‘regularly’ = 3.

CB-REMA. A slightly modified version of the SB-REMA (Classroom-Based Racial and Ethnic Microaggression scale—CB-REMA) was used in this study, where ‘campus’ was replaced by ‘classroom,’ and in which participants responded to questions in the context of their in-class interactions with faculty (e.g., “my professor made me feel intellectually inferior because of my race/ethnicity”). The researcher also administered the CB-REMA and SB-REMA at the same sitting, and then conducted a construct validity test on the modified Classroom-Based Racial and Ethnic Microaggression (CB-REMA) scale, by examining the relationship between student scores on the CB-REMA and the SB-REMA. Particular attention was placed on making sure that the survey was administered to a sample of students with high variance in terms of their race. (Participants identified as 0.3% American Indian/Alaskan Native, 6.1% Asian/Pacific Islander, 19% Black/African American, 44.4% Hispanic/Latino/a, and 30.2% White/Caucasian.) In addition, one question “I was singled out by school police or security because of my race/ethnicity” was excluded due to lack of relevance to the study. The resulting thirteen-item ordinal CB-REMA scale was scored like the SB-REMA on a three-point Likert scale, with ‘never’ = 1, ‘sometimes’ = 2, and ‘regularly’ = 3. The higher the score, the greater the students’ perceptions of in-class faculty racial microaggressions experienced by the participant, with the highest possible total score being 39, and the lowest possible total score being 13. CB-REMA scores above 13 suggested that the student experienced or perceived some level of in-class

faculty racial microaggression. A score of 13 meant the student never experienced or perceived in-class faculty racial microaggressions. The CB-REMA was used to measure the level of community college freshmen's perceptions of in-class racial microaggressions by faculty, in order to help answer the research questions about the relationship between community college freshmen's perceptions of faculty racial microaggressions in the classroom, and these students' intent to persist at the community college. (See Appendix C for permission from the developer to use the SB-REMA scale in this study.)

Microaggression Against Women Scale (MAWS). Owen, Tao, and Rodolfa (2010) developed the Microaggression Against Women Scale (MAWS) based on a review of the literature on microaggressions directed toward women, focus groups, and a panel of seven female psychology experts. Participants were recruited from the counseling center of a large university on the West Coast. The MAWS was designed to be similar to Constantine's (2007) Racial Microaggression in Counseling Scale (RMCS) in terms of length (10 to 15 items) and content, but with a focus on microaggression towards women. The MAWS was scored on a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 5 ('strongly agree') to 1 ('strongly disagree'). Like the RCMS, the range of MAWS scores was restricted, with a skewed distribution for some items (range for skewness = -.61 to -4.20). Owen et al. (2010) therefore conducted a latent class factor analysis, with clients' perceptions of their working alliance with their therapists, therapy outcomes, and initial emotional states used as covariates. The result was a one-factor model containing seven items with factor loadings greater than .40 (Cronbach's alpha = .75). Owen et al. (2010) argued that the "results from the factor analysis and internal consistency estimates supported the use of this one-factor, seven-item measure with women in psychotherapy" (p.

938), and that the MAWS scale was consistent with research themes around sexism and gender microaggression in the literature (e.g. stereotypical comments and beliefs about women, objectification of women's bodies), and with research in non-therapeutic settings (Owen et al., 2010).

MAWS-C. A slightly modified version (Microaggressions Against Women in the Classroom Scale—MAWS-C) was used in this study, in which ‘therapist’ was replaced with ‘professor’ (e.g., “my professor made stereotypical comments about women’s abilities, traits, or preferences”). The researcher also administered the MAWS-C and MAWS at the same sitting, and then conducted a construct validity test on the modified Microaggressions Against Women in the Classroom (MAWS-C) instrument, by examining the relationship between student scores on the MAWS-C and the MAWS. The MAWS-C was also scored like the MAWS, using a five-point Likert scale, in which 5 indicated strong agreement, and 1 strong disagreement. For the seven-item MAWS-C, total scores of 21 and above indicated that the participant experienced or perceived some level of in-class faculty gender microaggressions. The MAWS-C was an ordinal scale used to measure the level of community college freshmen’s perceptions of in-class gender microaggressions by faculty, in order to help answer the research questions about the relationship between community college freshmen’s perceptions of faculty gender microaggressions in the classroom, and these students’ intent to persist at the community college. The MAWS developer granted permission for the instrument to be used in non-commercial research or for educational purposes (see Appendix D).

Faculty-student interactions open-ended survey. Asking open-ended questions allowed participants to tell their own stories. A brief, three-question open-ended survey was

therefore administered at the end to capture students' perceptions of their classroom interactions with faculty. According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2018), "one [data] source may be preferred if the researcher's intent was to capture multiple facets of a phenomenon from each participant" (p. 189). The three open-ended questions were: (a) "Do you like the way your professors interact with you in the classroom, during your regularly scheduled class times? Why or why not?"; (b) "Please describe a time when you were made to feel put down, slighted, insulted, or inferior by your faculty members inside the classroom, either verbally or nonverbally, and during your regularly scheduled class times. Why do you think that happened?"; and (c) "Please use this space to share any other experiences that you have had with your faculty members, both positive and negative, inside the classroom and during your regularly scheduled class times."

The open-ended questions were used to explore how community college freshmen perceived faculty-student interactions in the classroom. Qualitative data collected were coded using Sue's (2010) microaggression taxonomy and themes as guides, in order to answer the qualitative research question on freshmen community college students' perceptions of in-class interactions with faculty based on the students' race and gender.

Data Analysis Methods

Quantitative data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), at an alpha significance level of .05. Qualitative data collected from the open-ended survey was analyzed and coded for emerging categories and themes that aligned with Tinto's (1975) theory on why students persisted or dropped out from higher education institutions, and informed by Sue's (2010) microaggression taxonomy and themes.

Quantitative Data Analysis Method

As noted previously, the quantitative research questions were:

1. Is there a statistically significant difference between the intent to persist of non-White community college freshmen and White community college freshmen, at a significance level of alpha .05?
2. Is there a statistically significant difference between the intent to persist of female community college freshmen and male community college freshmen, at a significance level of alpha .05?
3. Is intent to persist statistically significantly different for community college freshmen of different races, by individual racial groups, at a significance level of alpha .05?
4. Is there a statistically significant difference between non-White community college freshmen's overall perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and that of White community college freshmen, at a significance level of alpha .05?
5. Is perception of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom statistically significantly different for community college freshmen of different races/ethnicities, by individual racial groups, at a significance level of alpha .05?
6. Is there a statistically significant difference between female community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and that of male community college freshmen, at a significance level of alpha .05?

The second set of quantitative research questions examined relationships between intent to persist, and community college freshmen's perceptions of faculty classroom microaggressions:

7. What is the relationship between White community college freshmen's perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom and their intent to persist at the community college, at a significance level of alpha .05?
8. What is the relationship between non-White community college freshmen's overall perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom and their intent to persist at the community college, at a significance level of alpha .05?
9. What is the relationship between non-White community college freshmen's perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom and their intent to persist at the community college, by individual racial groups, at a significance level of alpha .05?
10. What is the relationship between female community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and their intent to persist at the community college, at a significance level of alpha .05?
11. What is the relationship between male community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and their intent to persist at the community college, at a significance level of alpha .05?

As such, the following null hypotheses were tested at a significance level (alpha) of alpha .05:

- #1. H₀₁: There is no statistically significant difference at alpha .05 between the intent to persist, as measured by STIP, of non-White community college freshmen and White community college freshmen.
- #2. H₀₂: There is no statistically significant difference at alpha .05 between the intent to persist, as measured by STIP, of female community college freshmen and male community college freshmen.
- #3. H₀₃: Intent to persist, as measured by STIP, is not statistically significantly different at alpha .05 for community college freshmen of different races, by individual racial groups.
- #4. H₀₄: There is no statistically significant difference at alpha .05 between non-White community college freshmen's overall perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and White community college freshmen's perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFREM.
- #5. H₀₅: Perception of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFREM, is not statistically significantly different at alpha .05 for community college freshmen of different races, by individual racial groups.
- #6. H₀₆: There is no statistically significant difference at alpha .05 between female community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and male community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFGM.

- #7. H₀₇: There is no statistically significant relationship at alpha .05 between White community college freshmen's perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFREM, and their intent to persist at the community college, as measured by STIP.
- #8. H₀₈: There is no statistically significant relationship at alpha .05 between non-White community college freshmen's overall perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFREM, and their intent to persist at the community college, as measured by STIP.
- #9. H₀₉: There is no statistically significant relationship at alpha .05 between non-White community college freshmen's perceptions, by individual racial groups, of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFREM, and their intent to persist at the community college, as measured by STIP.
- #10. H₀₁₀: There is no statistically significant relationship at alpha .05 between female community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFGM, and their intent to persist at the community college, as measured by STIP.
- #11. H₀₁₁: There is no statistically significant relationship at alpha .05 between male community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFGM, and their intent to persist at the community college, as measured by STIP.

For this study, the variables were: (a) community college freshman students' intent to persist (STIP), as measured by the IC/DC subscales of the CPQ/CPQ-V2 (Beck & Davidson,

2010; Davidson et al., 2009), on a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from -2 (e.g. “very unlikely to reenroll here next semester”) to +2 (e.g. “very likely to reenroll here next semester”); (b) community college freshman’s perceptions of in-class faculty racial microaggression (CFREM), as measured by the CB-REMA, on a 3-point Likert scale that gauged students’ reported experiences with faculty in-class racial microaggression (1 = “never”, 2 = “sometimes”, 3 = “regularly”); and (c) community college freshman’s perceptions of in-class faculty gender microaggression (CFGM), as measured by the MAWS-C, on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (‘strongly disagree’) to 5 (‘strongly agree’) on statements about students’ reported experiences with faculty in-class gender microaggression (e.g. “my professor made jokes or comments that would be offensive to many women.”). According to Szafran (2012), it was important to know the scale of measurement that was used for each variable when analyzing the data, as statistical procedures utilized depended on the variables involved. For this study, the STIP, CFREM, and CFGM were considered ordinal variables, and were analyzed using nonparametric statistics, in which normal distribution of the population from which the sample was drawn was not assumed (Bhattacharya & Roychowdhury, 2017).

The data were initially analyzed and interpreted using standard descriptive statistics such as measures of central tendency (median), variability measures (range), and measures of relative standing (percentile rank); and was also represented using bar chart and graphs as necessary. Further, to answer the research questions, Spearman’s rho rank correlation coefficient was calculated to indicate whether there was a relationship between STIP and CFREM for racial groups, and STIP and CFGM for gender groups. Additionally, Mann-Whitney U tests were used to examine whether there were statistically significant differences between two independent

variables: gender and binary race (e.g. female/male, non-White/White), and Kruskal Wallis tests were conducted to examine whether there were statistically significant differences among community college freshmen of different races for STIP and CFREM. According to Szafran (2012), “When the relationship between two variables was strong, knowing a case’s score on the first variable substantially improves accuracy in predicting its score on the second variable” (p. 198). Based on the results of prior research on faculty-student interactions and student persistence (e.g. Bean, 1985; Lamport, 1993; Endo & Harpel, 1982; Kuh & Hu, 2001), it was expected that a community college freshman student’s intent to persist (STIP) would be strongly and negatively related to his/her experience with faculty microaggressions inside the classroom: strong negative relationships were expected between STIP and CFREM for non-White students, and STIP and CFGM for female students. Spearman’s rho was calculated, and a relationship strength of $r \geq .70$ was used to establish whether a relationship was strong, though the size of the correlation coefficient could be affected by: (a) the amount of variability in the data, (b) differences in the shape of the two distributions, (c) lack of linearity, (d) the presence of one or more outliers, (e) sample characteristics, and (f) measurement error (Goodwin & Leech, 2006). Goodwin and Leech recommended questioning these factors in the event of a very low or zero correlation. Shapiro-Wilk’s test ($\alpha > .05$) were also conducted, and bar charts were produced for visual inspection of the distribution of the variables STIP, CFREM, and CFGM.

Further, Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted at alpha .05 to examine whether there were statistically significant differences between (a) non-White community college freshmen and White community college freshmen, in relation to their intent to persist, (b) female community college freshmen and male community college freshmen, in relation to their intent to persist, (c)

non-White community college freshmen and White community college freshmen, in relation to their perception of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and (d) female community college freshmen and male community college freshmen, in relation to their perception of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom. In addition, Kruskal Wallis tests were conducted at alpha .05 to examine whether there were statistically significant differences among community college freshmen of different races in relation to: (a) their intent to persist, and (b) their perception of faculty racial microaggression in the classroom. Crosstabs were also run to assess differences among groups, and listwise deletion of missing cases was used to remove participant responses that did not have valid information for STIP, CFREM, and CFGM, for the 311 eligible participants sampled. In listwise deletion, cases with missing data on any of the variables involved in a statistical procedure were removed (Szafran, 2012).

Qualitative Data Analysis Method

As noted previously, the qualitative research question was:

1. What are freshmen community college students' perceptions of in-class interactions with faculty based on the students' race/ethnicity and gender?

A brief, open-ended survey was administered at the end of the data collection session, and consisted of the following three questions: (a) "Do you like the way your professors interact with you in the classroom, during your regularly scheduled class times? Why or why not?"; (b) "Please describe a time when you were made to feel put down, slighted, insulted, or inferior by your faculty members inside the classroom, either verbally or nonverbally, and during your regularly scheduled class times. Why do you think that happened?"; and (c) "Please use this

space to share any other experiences that you have had with your faculty members, both positive and negative, inside the classroom and during your regularly scheduled class times.”

Qualitative data from the three open-ended survey questions was coded by the researcher, who looked for a collection of instances from the data to see if meanings relevant to classroom faculty-student interactions that included microaggressions on the part of faculty emerged. The researcher also examined individual student responses to see if meaning could be drawn from them, and developed generalized categories and themes from the open-ended survey responses, as guided by Sue’s (2010) microaggression taxonomy and themes. Sue (2010) defined microaggressions as,

brief and commonplace daily verbal, behavioral, and environmental indignities, whether intentional or unintentional, that communicate hostile, derogatory, or negative racial, gender, sexual orientation, and religious slights and insults to the target person or group.
(p. 5)

Faculty microaggressive behavior in the classroom could take the form of a *microassault*, a *microinsult*, or a *microinvalidation* (Sue, 2010; Sue et al., 2007). Microassaults were explicit, violent, and often conscious verbal and/or nonverbal attacks; microinsults were rude, demeaning, and often unconscious communications; and microinvalidations were often unconscious communications that served to exclude, negate or nullify a person’s thoughts, feelings or experiences. Common, but offensive, communication themes for students of color and female students included, but were not limited to: (a) ascription of intellectual inferiority, (b) second-class citizenship/assumption of inferior status, (c) assumed superiority of White/male cultural values/communication styles, (d) myth of meritocracy, (e) sexual objectification, (f) traditional

gender role stereotyping, (g) use of sexist language, (h) criminality/assumption of criminal status, (i) denial of racial reality and (j) denial of the reality of sexism (Sue, 2010). Taken together, Sue's microaggression taxonomy and themes served as a conceptual framework for this research study, and helped inform the selection of survey instruments, the development of open-ended survey questions, and the coding of the qualitative data.

Two hundred and sixty-two of the 311 eligible participants (or 84.2%) submitted written responses to the open-ended questions. Of these, 49 (or 18.7%) student responses that suggested microaggressions were coded as microassaults, microinsults, or microinvalidations (Sue, 2010; Sue et al., 2007), and then further subdivided into specific faculty microaggressive themes (see Appendix H). The researcher looked for possible themes that could emerge from the qualitative data, which included: (a) ascription of intellectual inferiority, (b) second-class citizenship/assumption of inferior status, (c) assumed superiority of White/male cultural values/communication styles, (d) myth of meritocracy, (e) sexual objectification, (f) traditional gender role stereotyping, (g) use of sexist language, (h) criminality/assumption of criminal status, (i) denial of racial reality and (j) denial of the reality of sexism (Sue, 2010). The goal was also to use the qualitative data for triangulation purposes with the quantitative data set, in order to provide corroborating evidence for answering the quantitative research questions that examined whether differences existed in how faculty racial and gender microaggressions in the classroom were perceived by the racial and gender groups (research questions 4 and 6). According to Creswell (2013), triangulation occurred when researchers "made use of multiple and different sources, methods, investigators, and theories to provide corroborating evidence" (p. 251). The open-ended responses were also read more than once to get an overall feeling for

them, and significant phrases or sentences that pertained directly to the “lived experiences” of the participants were identified. As previously explained, the researcher then came up with common themes around microaggression that emerged from the data, using Sue’s (2010) microaggression taxonomy and themes as guides. In addition, the researcher conducted additional analyses where participants’ responses to the open-ended questions were not coded as indicating perceptions of faculty microaggressions, in order to resolve potentially disconfirming results. Finally, participants’ direct quotes were also incorporated into the final study.

Threats to Validity

An operational definition of a variable describes the procedure by which that variable is going to be measured, and should be reliable and valid (Szafran, 2012). Reliability has to do with consistency of measurement, while validity is measuring what you plan to measure; it refers to the “goodness of fit between your theoretical definition and your operational definition” (Szafran, 2012, p. 19). Validity was more difficult to measure than reliability, given that a variable’s theoretical definition was abstract, and its operational definition produced concrete results. Hence, validity could only be indirectly assessed, either using logic or statistics. When there was no reliability and validity, the researcher could not have confidence in his/her research conclusions (Szafran, 2012). In this research study, construct validity tests were conducted on the modified Classroom-Based Racial and Ethnic Microaggression (CB-REMA) Scale, and the modified Microaggression Against Women in the Classroom Scale (MAWS-C), by examining the relationship between (a) participants’ scores on the CB-REMA and the School-Based Racial and Ethnic Microaggression Scale (SB-REMA; Keel et al., 2017), and (b) participants’ scores on the MAWS-C and the Microaggression Against Women Scale (MAWS; Owen et al., 2010). In

general, threats to internal validity had to do with anything that might affect the accuracy of the results, and threats to external validity had to do with issues that might affect the generalizability of the results (Terrell, 2016). Internal and external validity threats for this study are discussed in more detail, later in the section.

Convergent Mixed Methods Design

Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) defined validity in mixed methods research as “employing strategies that address potential threats to drawing correct inferences and accurate assessments from the integrated data” (p. 251). Validity threats specific to the convergent mixed methods design include: (a) not using parallel concepts when collecting data in the quantitative and qualitative databases, (b) using unequal sample sizes, (c) keeping results from the quantitative and qualitative databases separate, and (d) failing to resolve disconfirming results (Creswell & Plano Clark). One strategy to minimize such threats was to ensure that parallel questions that addressed the same concept were created. The quantitative questions for this study sought to address students’ perceptions of in-class faculty-student interactions, and the open-ended survey questions sought to explore the same concept as well. The collection of both quantitative and qualitative data from each study participant at one sitting also addressed the issue of unequal sample sizes, and the use of convergent data analysis integration strategies ensured that results from both data strands were considered together. Lastly, in the event that there were disconfirming results, the researcher performed an additional analysis to understand such results.

External Validity

As previously noted, threats to external validity had to do with issues that might affect the generalizability of the results (Terrell, 2016). In this study, a threat to external validity was presented by the sampling procedure, in that data were drawn from a single community college in the Northeast. In addition, a non-probability (in this case convenience) sampling technique was used, in which the most easily accessible sample was selected. This external validity threat was, however, addressed by obtaining a large enough sample size (311 eligible participants) to improve generalizability of the findings to the population from which the sample was drawn. Further, for the quantitative data portion of the study, external validity threats were also addressed by first controlling for extraneous variables such as the age of the participant and his or her course registration status, by only using first-time, full time community college freshman students who were most likely in the same age range (18-23 years), and who were all registered for twelve or more credits. Nakajima et al. (2012) investigated factors that were likely to influence a community college student's decision to persist, or drop out, of his/her institution. The authors found that student persistence as measured by retention was negatively related to the age of the student, and found a positive relationship between persistence and units enrolled. Hence, selecting freshman participants who were 18-23 years old allowed the researcher to hold the confounding variables of age and registration status constant. In addition, the researcher framed explicit hypotheses in advance of data collection, and employed tests of statistical significance ($\alpha = .05$), in order to address threats to external validity. Standardization of instructions and procedures were also be used for all participants to minimize the potential influence of extraneous variables due to instrumentation, participant effect, and experimenter

effect. Further, participants were told that the researcher was simply interested in learning about faculty-student interactions in the community college classroom, and were not specifically told about microaggressive faculty behaviors.

For the qualitative part of the study, theory-informed coding—as guided by Sue’s (2010) microaggression taxonomy and themes—was used to allow for the extraction of emergent themes. In addition, alternate explanations or interpretations were ruled out, and the credibility and trustworthiness of the study was established, through strategies such as triangulation and reporting disconfirming evidence, which was “information that present[ed] a perspective that was contrary to the one indicated by the established evidence” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 217). Identifying and reporting on disconfirming evidence helped confirm the accuracy of the data analysis as, in real life, one could reasonably expect to find evidence that diverged from the themes (Creswell & Plano Clark).

The researcher also sought to clarify researcher bias at the outset of the study, by bracketing her own experiences, so as to focus on the experiences of the participants, and by commenting on past experiences or biases that might influence the interpretation and approach to the study. Additionally, participants’ direct quotes were incorporated into the final study.

Internal Validity

The quantitative term internal validity has to do with demonstrating that the explanation provided by a research study for a particular issue, event or data set was actually sustained by the data (Cohen et al., 2000). In other words, the findings must provide an accurate description of the research phenomena, and the design, conduct, and analysis of the study must answer the research questions without bias (Andrade, 2018; Cohen et al., 2000). Controlling for extraneous variables

and eliminating confounding variables also served to increase internal validity (Garcia-Perez, 2012). As noted before, the confounding variables of age and registration status were held constant by only using first-time, full time community college freshman students who were in the same age range (18-23 years), and who were all registered for twelve or more credits. Furthermore, Tinto's (1975) interactionist model of student persistence formed the theoretical framework for this study, and posited that faculty-student interactions influenced a freshman student's level of academic integration into the community college, which in turn impacted his/her decision to drop out of, or persist at, the institution. As such, the researcher also conducted a thorough review of the literature on faculty-student interactions, to firmly establish that faculty-student interactions could indeed affect community college student outcomes.

Construct Validity

Construct validity has to do with the "degree to which an instrument measures what it claims to measure" (Terrell, 2016, p. 86) and is the most important type of validity. The instruments that served as the basis for this study's instruments have been based on extensive research in the area of student persistence (CPQ/CPQ-V2) and microaggressions (SB-REMA, MAWS), and have been subjected to validity tests as discussed previously (Beck & Davidson, 2010; Davidson et al., 2009; Keels et al., 2017; Owen et al., 2010). To validate the slightly modified versions (CB-REMA, MAWS-C), the researcher administered both surveys for each variable (CFREM and CFGM), and then explored the construct validity of the CB-REMA and MAWS-C, by examining the relationships between participants' responses on the CB-REMA with the SB-REMA, and the MAWS-C and the MAWS scales. It was expected that the CB-REMA and the SB-REMA would be strongly related, and that the MAWS-C and the MAWS

would be strongly related as well. Spearman's rank correlational analyses revealed statistically significant, positive, and reasonably strong relationships between the CB-REMA and SB-REMA ($r_s = .56$, $N = 311$, $p = .00$), and the MAWS-C and MAWS ($r_s = .62$, $N = 311$, $p = .00$).

Ethical Procedures

The researcher only conducted the study after approval had been obtained from the Institutional Review Boards of the University of Bridgeport (see Appendix I) and the community college at which the research was conducted, as such approval was critical. Although the researcher worked at NCC, no research was conducted unless and until such IRB approval had been secured. In addition, the researcher obtained informed consent from the participants, in which participants' rights and responsibilities were laid out. In terms of recruitment of participants, under no circumstances did the researcher directly solicit participants from among students in the introductory English class she taught in the spring semester, though there were eligible participants among the students in her class. Lastly, all participant information was securely stored and kept strictly confidential.

Summary

The purposes of this convergent mixed methods study were to examine the relationship, if any, between students' perceptions of in-class faculty microaggressions directed at students, and community college students' intent to persist, and to explore students' perceptions of their experiences with microaggressive classroom faculty interactions, particularly by race and gender. For the purpose of this study, a community college student's intent to persist was measured using the Institutional Commitment and Degree Commitment subscales of the CPQ/CPQ-V2 (Beck & Davidson, 2010; Davidson et al., 2009). This research study also employed a pragmatic

philosophy and research paradigm, and used convenience sampling strategies. Members of the population to be included in the sampling frame were first-time full-time students who began their higher education studies at the community college during the previous fall semester, and who were currently enrolled at the same institution for the spring semester on a full-time basis. Participants were recruited from among freshman students who met the inclusion criteria at a medium-sized community college in the Northeastern United States. The researcher also worked with the Institutional Review Boards (IRB) to obtain approval to conduct the research study, and study participants were provided with the basic elements of informed consent. Study measures, which were administered via paper surveys, included a Demographic Questionnaire, the Degree Commitment and Institutional Commitment Subscales of the CPQ/CPQ-V2, the Classroom-Based Racial and Ethnic Microaggression (CB-REMA) Scale, the Microaggression Against Women in the Classroom (MAWS-C) Scale, the SB-REMA, the MAWS, and a brief three-question Faculty-Student Interaction Open-Ended Survey. Quantitative data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), at a significance level of .05. Qualitative data collected from the open-ended survey were analyzed and coded for emerging categories and themes, using Sue's (2010) taxonomy and themes as guides. In instances where participants' responses did not indicate perceptions of faculty microaggressions, the researcher conducted additional analyses to resolve any potentially disconfirming results. Threats to validity were also addressed in the study, and the researcher followed ethical procedures in obtaining permissions, recruiting participants, and safely storing data.

CHAPTER IV

THE RESULTS

The purposes of this convergent mixed methods study were to: (a) examine the relationship, if any, between community college freshmen's perceptions of in-class faculty microaggressions directed at students, and their intent to persist at the community college, (b) seek to determine whether differences existed in the racial and gender groups' intent to persist at the community college, and in their perceptions of classroom racial and gender microaggressions by faculty, and (c) explore these students' perceptions of their experiences with microaggressive classroom faculty interactions.

For the quantitative portion of the study, the relevant variables were community college freshmen's perceptions of in-class faculty racial microaggression (CFREM), as measured by the CB-REMA; community college freshmen's perceptions of in-class faculty gender microaggression (CFGF), as measured by the MAWS-C; and community college freshman students' intent to persist, as measured by the CPQ/CPQ-V2 (Beck & Davidson, 2010; Davidson et al., 2009). The study sought to answer the following quantitative research questions:

1. Is there a statistically significant difference between the intent to persist of non-White community college freshmen and White community college freshmen, at a significance level of alpha .05?
2. Is there a statistically significant difference between the intent to persist of female community college freshmen and male community college freshmen, at a significance level of alpha .05?

3. Is intent to persist statistically significantly different for community college freshmen of different races, by individual racial groups, at a significance level of alpha .05?
4. Is there a statistically significant difference between non-White community college freshmen's overall perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and that of White community college freshmen, at a significance level of alpha .05?
5. Is perception of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom statistically significantly different for community college freshmen of different races/ethnicities, by individual racial groups, at a significance level of alpha .05?
6. Is there a statistically significant difference between female community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and that of male community college freshmen, at a significance level of alpha .05?

The second set of quantitative research questions examined relationships between intent to persist, and community college freshmen's perceptions of faculty classroom microaggressions:

7. What is the relationship between White community college freshmen's perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom and their intent to persist at the community college, at a significance level of alpha .05?
8. What is the relationship between non-White community college freshmen's overall perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom and their intent to persist at the community college, at a significance level of alpha .05?

9. What is the relationship between non-White community college freshmen's perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom and their intent to persist at the community college, by individual racial groups, at a significance level of alpha .05?
10. What is the relationship between female community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and their intent to persist at the community college, at a significance level of alpha .05?
11. What is the relationship between male community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and their intent to persist at the community college, at a significance level of alpha .05?

Additionally, for the qualitative portion of the study, the following research question was explored:

1. What are freshmen community college students' perceptions of in-class interactions with faculty based on the students' race/ethnicity and gender?

The researcher initially intended to examine relationships using community college student dropout risk, which would be calculated using participants' IC/DC scores (the same as the calculation of students' intent to persist), with negative scores indicating that participants were at risk of dropping out. However, the data collected from surveying first time, full time freshmen at the Northeast Community College (NCC) revealed that participants had overall positive median scores—with total scores potentially ranging from -20 (very unlikely to reenroll the next semester) to + 20 (very likely to reenroll the next semester)—suggesting that students indicated some level of commitment to their degrees and to the institution (Figure 2). Further, the

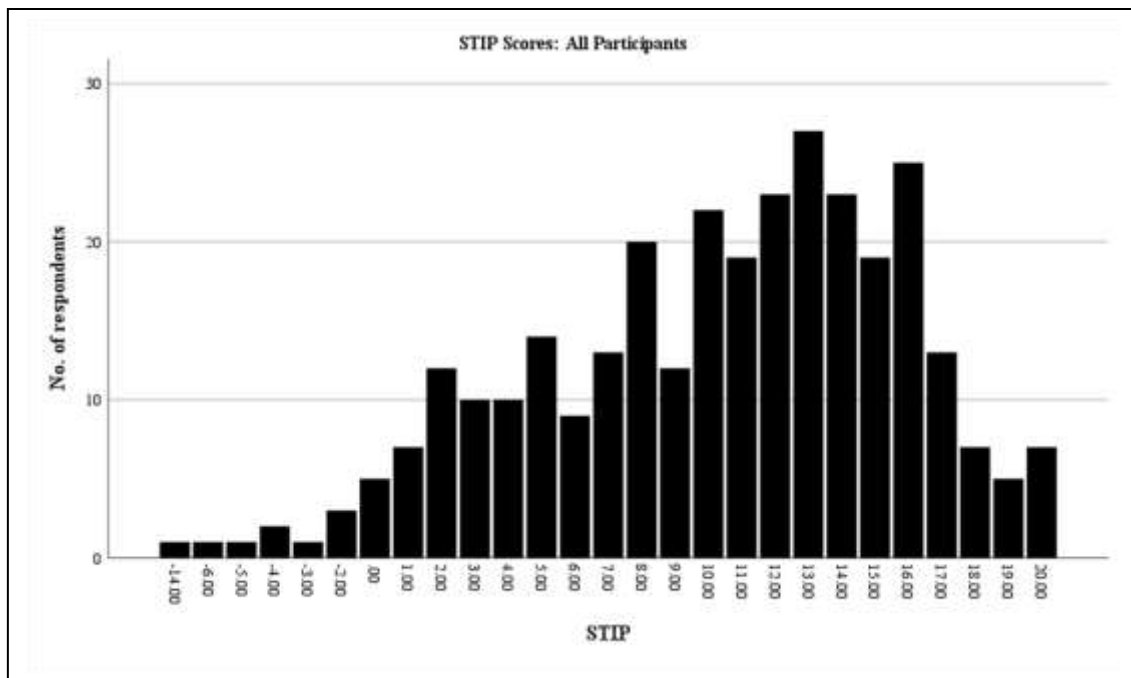


Figure 2. Chart showing intent to persist (STIP) scores for community college freshmen (n = 311), ranging from -14 to +20. The figure presents a graphical display of the number of respondents per STIP score. STIP scores > 0 indicate participants intended to persist, and STIP scores < 0 indicate participants unlikely to persist. STIP = 0 indicates participants remained undecided.

median intent to persist (STIP) score for the freshman community college students was 11, with that of females = 12, males = 11, Asian/Pacific Islander = 12, Black/African American = 12, Hispanic/Latino/a = 10.5, and White/Caucasian = 10.5. No median could be calculated for the single American Indian/Alaskan Native, as such calculation would be meaningless. In addition, when asked the third question on the Institutional Commitment subscale (“how likely is it that you will reenroll here next semester?”), participants overwhelmingly indicated that they were either “very likely” or “somewhat likely” to return to NCC after the spring 2019 semester (female = 80.3%, male = 77%, American Indian/Alaskan Native = 100%, Asian/Pacific Islander = 89.5%, Black/African American = 78%, Hispanic/Latino/a = 79.7%, White/Caucasian = 74.5%). The researcher therefore examined relationships with community college students’ intent to persist—which considered both students who intended to persist toward their degrees

and students who were at risk of dropping out (i.e. did not intend to persist toward degrees). Students' intent to persist (STIP) scores were calculated by summing Institutional Commitment (IC) and Degree Commitment (DC) scores (Beck & Davidson, 2010; Davidson et al., 2009) for each participant. Figure 2 illustrates intent to persist for all community college freshmen in the study.

In this chapter, the researcher will discuss the data collection process, including an explanation of any discrepancies between actual data collection and the initial proposal. A detailed presentation of study results will come after, followed by an overall chapter summary at the end.

Data Collection

Paper surveys were administered in twenty-two classrooms and one workshop with students enrolled in the Northeast Community College's Educational Opportunity Program (EOP), from the middle of March 2019 to the end of April 2019. The EOP is a New York State program that supports academically and economically disadvantaged students who attend NY state public colleges (SUNY, 2019). The researcher used convenience (or opportunity) sampling to obtain the most easily accessible participants. Faculty with whom the researcher was familiar were contacted directly, in order to obtain their permission to administer paper surveys during class times. Permission was obtained from twelve teaching faculty—nine full-time and three adjunct faculty members (ten White/Caucasian females, one Black/African American male, and one Hispanic/Latino male)—who all taught more than one section of the same course. However, the researcher did not survey all course sections for all faculty members. Further, for ethical reasons, the researcher did not administer paper surveys to students enrolled in the college-level,

second-semester English course (English 102) that she taught during the spring 2019 semester, even though there were eligible participants among the students in her class.

Of the twenty-three paper survey administrations, seventeen (or 73.9%) were conducted in second-semester, college-level English courses (English 102); two (or 8.7%) were conducted in Advanced Reading classes; two (or 8.7%) were conducted in introductory Political Science courses; one (or 4.35%) was conducted in a first-semester, college-level English course (English 101); and one (or 4.35%) was conducted during an EOP workshop. In addition, three English 102 classes consisted of students in cohort-based programs—Honors College and a replication of the City University of New York’s Accelerated Study in Associate Programs model (CUNY ASAP)—who received significant advising and financial support. Furthermore, in order to secure maximum participation, the researcher had planned to utilize both online and paper surveys that were identical. However, electronic surveys were not administered, as the researcher was able to obtain more than the minimum number of survey responses required, from just the in-person

Table 2
Breakdown of Survey Administration Locations

Where Administered	College Course/Event	<i>n</i>	%
Classroom	English 102	17	73.90%
Classroom	Advanced Reading	2	8.70%
Classroom	Intro to Political Science	2	8.70%
Classroom	English 101	1	4.35%
Workshop	EOP	1	4.35%
Total locations		23	100.00%

administration of paper surveys. Participants were asked a total of sixty-three survey questions: sixty questions were close-ended, and three collected open-ended responses. The response rate for the 311 eligible paper surveys collected was 100% for the close-ended survey questions, and 84.2% for the open-ended survey questions. Table 2 illustrates the breakdown of the classrooms/workshop where paper surveys were administered.

Three hundred and sixteen surveys were collected during the spring 2019 semester from matriculated first-time, full-time students who began their studies at the medium-sized Northeastern Community College (NCC) during the fall 2018 semester. Five students were excluded from the sample, as the racial and gender identities of participants were important to this study in terms of how in-class faculty microaggressions were perceived by these groups: (a) two participants who listed their gender as “other;” (b) two participants who indicated they were of “mixed” race/ethnicity; and (c) one who listed himself as “Caribbean-Irish.” In addition, a male student who indicated he was Pakistani was coded as Asian or Pacific Islander, and a student who said she was Central/South American was coded as Hispanic or Latino/a.

The average age of the remaining 311 eligible participants was 19 years, as indicated in

Table 3
Participants’ Ages

Variable	<i>n</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	311	18	23	19.0064	1.15840

Table 3. Further, 45.7% of participants identified as female, and 54.3% identified as male. The top three racial groups with which participants identified were Hispanic or Latino/a (44.4%),

White or Caucasian (30.2%), and Black or African American (19.0%). Additional sample characteristics are presented in Table 4.

Table 4
Descriptive Characteristics for Eligible Respondents

Variable	<i>N</i>	% Percentage of total number
Gender		
Female	142	45.7
Male	169	54.3
Race/Ethnicity		
American Indian or Alaskan Native	1	0.3
Asian or Pacific Islander	19	6.1
Black or African American	59	19.0
Hispanic or Latino/a	138	44.4
White or Caucasian	94	30.2
Birthplace		
Born in USA	253	81.4
Born outside USA	58	18.6
College Generational Status		
First person in immediate family in college	82	26.4
Not first person in immediate family in college	229	73.6
High School Graduation Status		
High school diploma	309	99.4
GED	2	0.6

Study Results

Quantitative Data Analysis

Quantitative data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), at a significance level of $\alpha = .05$. The null hypotheses tested were:

- #1. H₀₁: There is no statistically significant difference at alpha .05 between the intent to persist, as measured by STIP, of non-White community college freshmen and White community college freshmen.
- #2. H₀₂: There is no statistically significant difference at alpha .05 between the intent to persist, as measured by STIP, of female community college freshmen and male community college freshmen.
- #3. H₀₃: Intent to persist, as measured by STIP, is not statistically significantly different at alpha .05 for community college freshmen of different races, by individual racial groups.
- #4. H₀₄: There is no statistically significant difference at alpha .05 between non-White community college freshmen's overall perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and White community college freshmen's perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFREM.
- #5. H₀₅: Perception of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFREM, is not statistically significantly different at alpha .05 for community college freshmen of different races, by individual racial groups.
- #6. H₀₆: There is no statistically significant difference at alpha .05 between female community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community

college classroom, and male community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFGM.

- #7. H₀₇: There is no statistically significant relationship at alpha .05 between White community college freshmen's perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFREM, and their intent to persist at the community college, as measured by STIP.
- #8. H₀₈: There is no statistically significant relationship at alpha .05 between non-White community college freshmen's overall perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFREM, and their intent to persist at the community college, as measured by STIP.
- #9. H₀₉: There is no statistically significant relationship at alpha .05 between non-White community college freshmen's perceptions, by individual racial groups, of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFREM, and their intent to persist at the community college, as measured by STIP.
- #10. H₀₁₀: There is no statistically significant relationship at alpha .05 between female community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFGM, and their intent to persist at the community college, as measured by STIP.
- #11. H₀₁₁: There is no statistically significant relationship at alpha .05 between male community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFGM, and their intent to persist at the community college, as measured by STIP.

For this study, the variables considered were community college students' intent to persist (STIP), as measured by the IC/DC subscales of the CPQ/CPQ-V2 (Beck & Davidson, 2010; Davidson et al., 2009); students' perceptions of in-class faculty racial microaggression (CFREM) as measured by the CB-REMA; and students' perceptions of in-class faculty gender microaggression (CFGM) as measured by the MAWS-C. Question 13 on the IC/DC subscale ("how much thought have you given to stopping your education here...") was the only item that was reverse-coded on any of the scales. In addition, question 44 on the CB-REMA scale ("my professor denied during class that people of my race/ethnicity face extra obstacles when compared to the majority race/ethnicity") had an additional option of "N/A," to which a score of zero was assigned. STIP, CFREM, and CFGM were ordinal variables that were analyzed based on total scores ranging from: (a) -20 to +20 for STIP, with scores above zero indicating greater commitment on students' part to their degrees and the institution (likely to persist), and negative scores suggesting students' lack of commitment to their degrees and the institution (likely to drop out); (b) 13 to 39 for CFREM, with scores greater than 13 indicating students' perception of some level of faculty classroom racial microaggression, and a score of 13 indicating that students never perceived faculty classroom racial microaggression; and (c) 7 to 35 for CFGM, with scores greater than 21 indicating students' perception of some level of faculty classroom gender microaggression, and scores less than 21 indicating that students never perceived faculty classroom gender microaggression.

Student Intent to Persist

The variable STIP was used to assess community college freshman students' intent to persist, and was calculated using participants' responses to ten questions, scored on a 5-point Likert

scale that ranged from -2 to +2 (e.g. -2 = “very unlikely”, -1 = “somewhat unlikely”, 0 = “neutral”, 1 = “somewhat likely”, 2 = “very likely”). The measure was calculated by summing

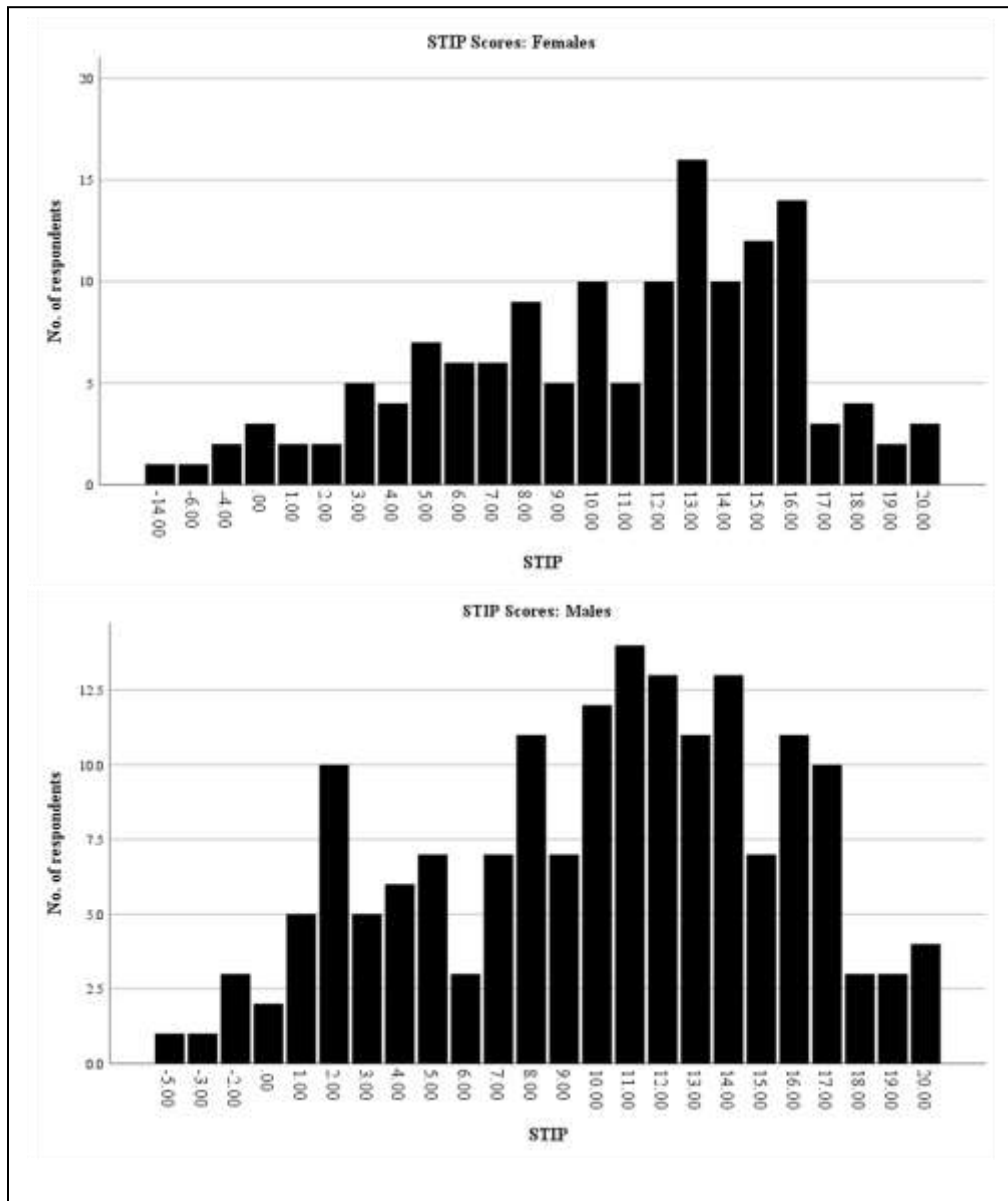


Figure 3. Chart showing intent to persist (STIP) scores for community college freshmen by gender (females: n = 142; males: n = 169), ranging from -14 to +20 for females and -5 to +20 for males. The figure presents a graphical display of the number of respondents per STIP score. STIP scores > 0 indicate participants intended to persist, and STIP scores < 0 indicate participants unlikely to persist. STIP = 0 indicates participants remained undecided.

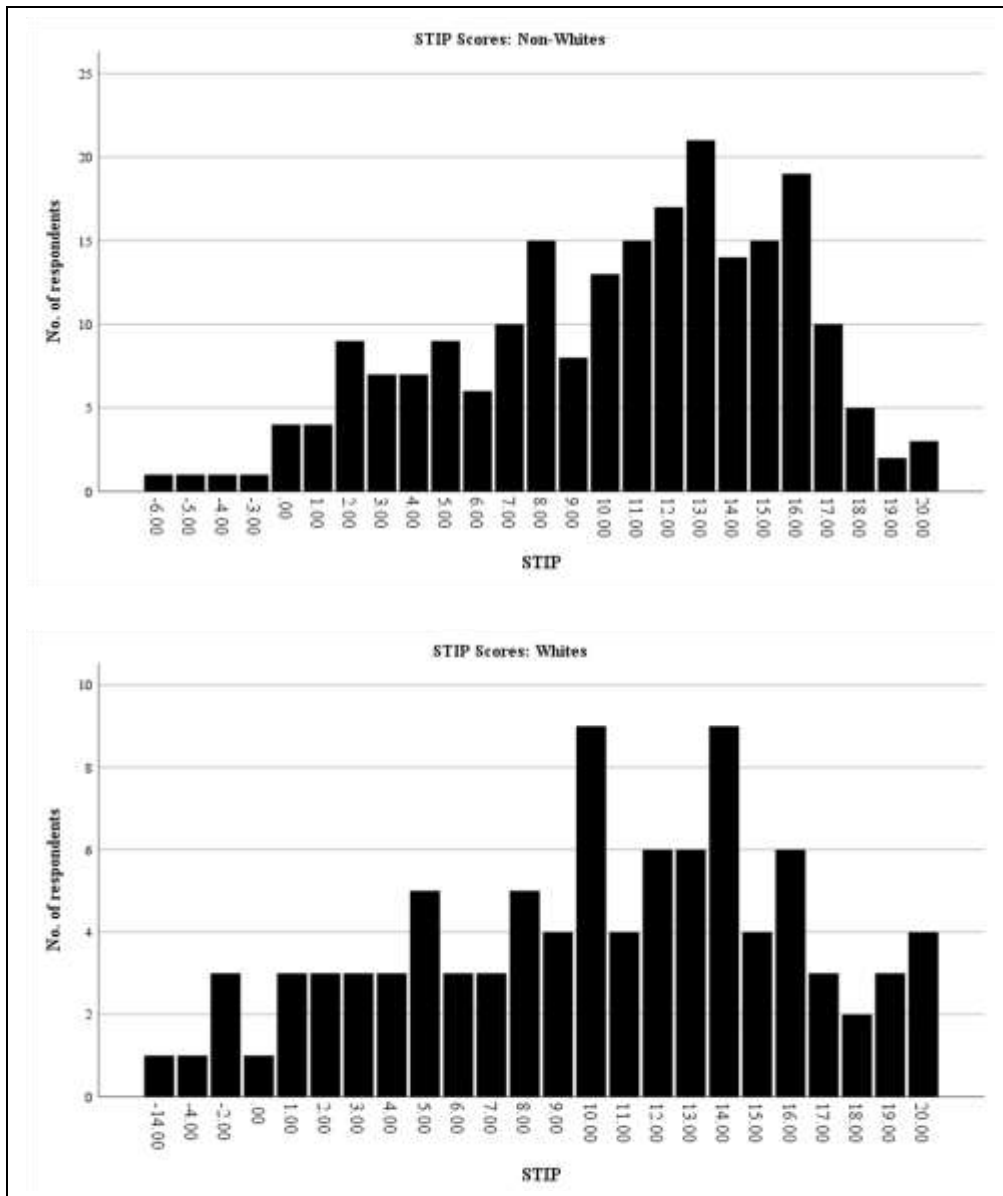


Figure 4. Chart showing intent to persist (STIP) scores for non-White and White community college freshmen (non-White: n = 217; White: n = 94), ranging from -6 to +20 for non-Whites, and -14 to +20 for Whites. The figure presents a graphical display of the number of respondents per STIP score. STIP scores > 0 indicate participants intended to persist, and STIP scores < 0 indicate participants unlikely to persist. STIP = 0 indicates participants remained undecided.

participants' responses on the Institutional Commitment and Degree Commitment subscales of the College Persistence Questionnaire (CPQ/CPQ-V2), which have been shown to demonstrate predictive validity in terms of whether students returned to their institutions for the second year

(Beck & Davidson, 2010; Davidson et al., 2009). For this sample, the internal consistency for STIP was adequate at $\alpha = .73$. STIP scores for female participants ranged from -14 to 20, with a median score of 12; and STIP scores for male participants ranged from -5 to 20, with a median score of 11. The distributions for both female and males were also negatively skewed (-1.03 [SE = .203] for females, and -0.4 for males [SE = .187]). Additionally, a Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$) and a visual inspection of the respective bar chart (see Figure 3) revealed that total scores for students' intent to persist were not normally distributed for both female and male participants.

Further, STIP scores for non-White participants ranged from -6 to +20, with a median score of 11; and STIP scores for White participants ranged from -14 to +20, with a median score of 10.5. The distributions for both non-Whites and Whites were also negatively skewed (-0.59 [SE = .165] for non-Whites, and -0.79 for Whites [SE = .249]). A Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$) and a visual inspection of the respective bar charts (see Figure 4) revealed that scores for students' intent to persist were not normally distributed for both non-White and White participants. Distributions for each non-White group was also negatively skewed, with non-normal distributions found for Black/African American and Hispanic/Latino/a participants.

Hypothesis 1 (H_{01}): *There is no statistically significant difference at alpha .05 between the intent to persist, as measured by STIP, of non-White community college freshmen and White community college freshmen.*

A Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to examine whether there was a statistically significant difference between non-White and White community college freshmen, in relation to their intent to persist. Median STIP values for non-Whites and Whites were 11 and 10.5 respectively. The results revealed no statistically significant difference between non-White and

White community college freshmen in relation to their intent to persist (STIP), at a significance level of alpha .05 (Mann-Whitney $U = 9929.5$, $n_1 = 217$, $n_2 = 94$, $p = .71$, two-tailed). The null hypothesis was therefore not rejected, and it was concluded that non-White and White community college freshmen had similar intent to persist.

Hypothesis 2 (H_{02}): *There is no statistically significant difference at alpha .05 between the intent to persist, as measured by STIP, of female community college freshmen and male community college freshmen.*

A Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to examine whether there was a statistically significant difference between female community college freshmen and male community college freshmen, in relation to their intent to persist. Median STIP values for females and males were 12 and 11 respectively. The results revealed no statistically significant difference between female and male community college freshmen in relation to their intent to persist (STIP), at a significance level of alpha .05 (Mann-Whitney $U = 11297$, $n_1 = 142$, $n_2 = 169$, $p = .37$, two-tailed). The null hypothesis was therefore not rejected, and it was concluded that female and male community college freshmen had similar intent to persist.

Hypothesis 3 (H_{03}): *Intent to persist, as measured by STIP, is not statistically significantly different at alpha .05 for community college freshmen of different races, by individual racial groups.*

A Kruskal Wallis test was conducted to examine whether there were statistically significant differences among community college freshmen of different races (except for the single American Indian/Alaskan Native), in relation to their intent to persist. Median STIP values were 12 for Asian/Pacific Islanders, 12 for Black/African Americans, 10.5 for Hispanic/Latinos,

and 10.5 for White/Caucasians. The results revealed no statistically significant differences among the individual races in relation to their intent to persist (STIP), at a significance level of alpha .05 ($\chi^2 = 1.87$, $n_1 = 19$, $n_2 = 59$, $n_3 = 138$, $n_4 = 94$, $p = .76$, $df = 4$). The null hypothesis was therefore not rejected, and it was concluded that similar intent to persist existed among community college freshmen of different races.

Perception of Faculty Racial Microaggression in the Classroom

The variable CFREM was used to assess community college students' perceptions of in-class faculty racial microaggressions, and was calculated using the total score of participants' responses to thirteen questions, scored on a 3-point Likert scale (1 = "never", 2 = "sometimes", 3 = "regularly"). The measure was derived from participants' responses on a slightly modified version of the School-Based Racial and Ethnic Microaggression (SB-REMA) Scale, which was developed and validated by Keels, Durkee, and Hope (2017) to measure students' experiences in the context of school-based racial and ethnic microaggressions. It was expected that the CFREM scores would be strongly related to participants' scores on the SB-REMA. The researcher therefore administered both the CB-REMA and SB-REMA scales to participants in one sitting, and then examined whether there was a relationship between CFREM and SB-REMA scores. A Spearman's rank correlation was conducted to examine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between CFREM scores and SB-REMA scores. The results revealed a moderate, positive relationship that was statistically significant at alpha .05 ($r_s = .56$, $N = 311$, $p = .00$). The results indicated that CFREM and SB-REMA scores tended to increase and decrease together. Squaring the r_s value suggested a 31.4% overlap between CFREM scores and SB-REMA scores. In other words, SB-REMA scores explained about 31% of the variation in

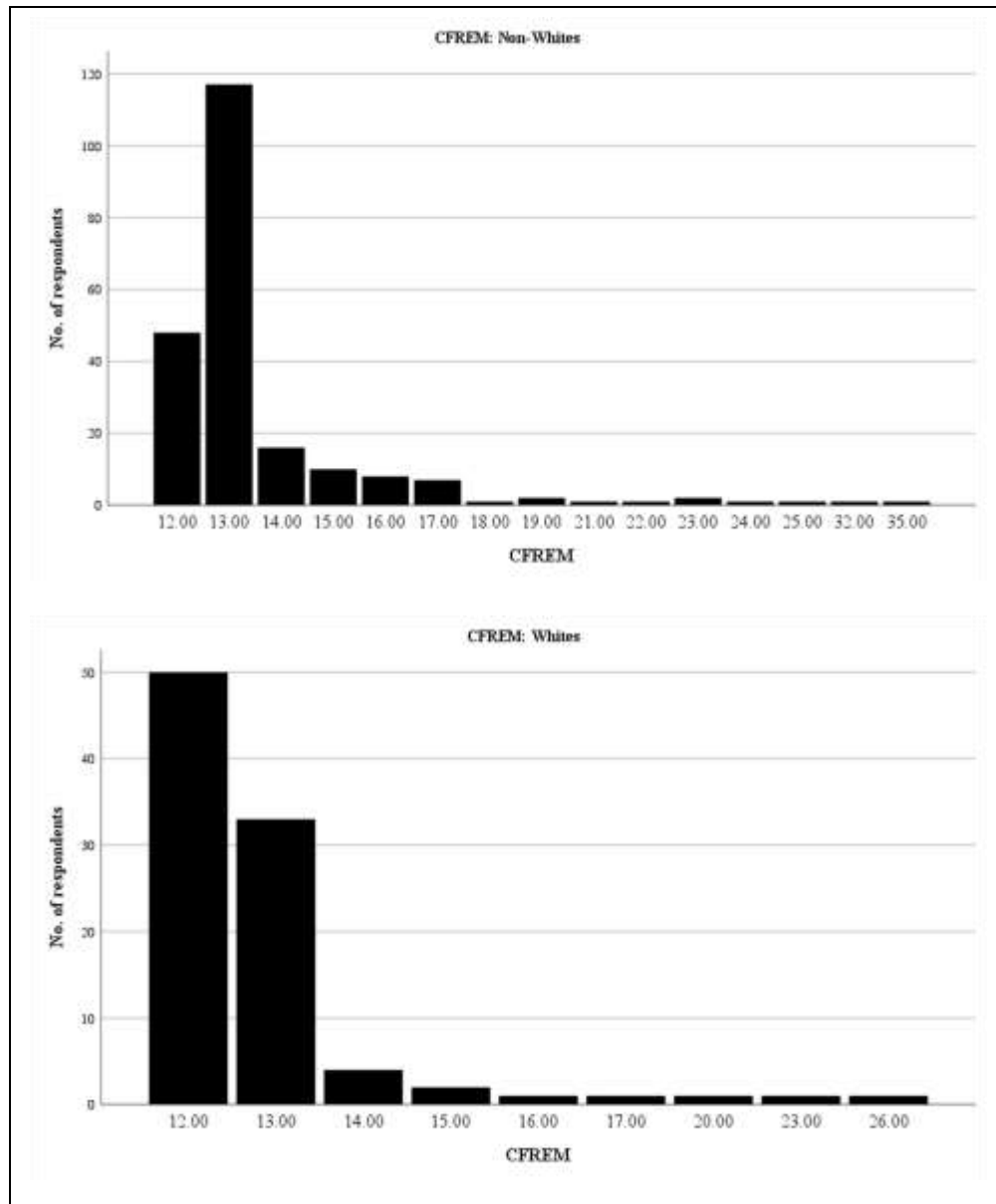


Figure 5. Chart showing non-White (n = 217) and White (n = 94) community college freshmen's perceptions of racial microaggressions by faculty inside the classroom (CFREM), ranging from 12 to 35 for non-Whites, and 12 to 26 for Whites. The figure presents a graphical display of the number of respondents per CFREM score. CFREM scores > 13 indicate participants "sometimes," or "regularly" perceived faculty in-class racial microaggression; CFREM scores ≤ 13 indicate participants "never" perceived faculty in-class racial microaggression.

CFREM scores. Additionally, CFREM had good internal consistency for the current sample of $\alpha = .88$, indicating that the test measured what it was supposed to measure.

CFREM scores for non-White participants ranged from 12 to 35, with a median score of 13. Specifically, scores for Asian/Pacific Islanders ranged from 12 to 23; scores for Black/African Americans ranged from 12 to 35; and scores for Hispanic/Latinos ranged from 12 to 24. The median score was 13 for all non-White groups (except for the single American Indian/Alaskan Native, for whom no meaningful median score could be found). Additionally, CFREM scores for White participants ranged from 12 to 26, with a median score of 12.

The distributions for both non-Whites and Whites were also positively skewed: 4.4 (SE = .165) for non-Whites, and 4.42 for Whites (SE = .249). A Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$) and a visual inspection of the respective bar charts (see Figure 5) revealed that scores for community college students' perceptions of in-class faculty racial microaggressions were non-normally distributed for both non-White and White participants. Distributions for individual non-White groups were also positively skewed, and they all had non-normal distributions (with the exception of the single American Indian).

Hypothesis 4 (H_{04}): *There is no statistically significant difference at alpha .05 between non-White community college freshmen's overall perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and White community college freshmen's perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFREM.*

A Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to examine whether there was a statically significant difference between non-White community college freshmen and White community college freshmen in relation to their perception of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom. Median CFREM values for non-Whites and Whites were 13 and

12 respectively. The test revealed a statistically significant difference between non-White and White community college freshmen (Mann-Whitney $U = 6812$, $n_1 = 217$, $n_2 = 94$, $p = .00$, two-tailed). The null hypothesis was therefore rejected, and it was concluded that non-White and White community college freshmen statistically significantly differed in their perception of racial microaggression by faculty inside the classroom.

Hypothesis 5 (H_{05}): *Perception of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFREM, is not statistically significantly different at alpha .05 for community college freshmen of different races, by individual racial groups.*

A Kruskal Wallis test was conducted to examine whether there were statistically significant differences among community college freshmen of different races, in relation to their perception of faculty racial microaggression in the classroom. The median CFREM value was 13 for Asian/Pacific Islanders, Black/African Americans, and Hispanic/Latinos; and 12 for White/Caucasians. The results revealed statistically significant differences among the races/ethnicities ($\chi^2 = 30.18$, $n_1 = 19$, $n_2 = 59$, $n_3 = 138$, $n_4 = 94$, $p = .00$, $df = 4$), at a significance level of alpha .05. Pairwise comparisons using Bonferroni correction for multiple tests revealed statistically significant differences between: (a) White/Caucasian and Black/African American ($\chi^2 = 63.42$, $n_1 = 94$, $n_2 = 59$, $p = .00$); (b) White/Caucasian and Asian/Pacific Islander ($\chi^2 = 79.61$, $n_1 = 94$, $n_2 = 19$, $p = .001$); and (c) White/Caucasian and Hispanic/Latino/a ($\chi^2 = 42.74$, $n_1 = 94$, $n_2 = 138$, $p = .001$). These results indicated that White/Caucasian community college freshmen's perceptions of faculty classroom racial microaggression statistically significantly differed from the perception of faculty classroom racial microaggression by Black/African American, Asian/Pacific islander, and Hispanic/Latino/a community college freshmen.

Perception of Faculty Gender Microaggression in the Classroom

The variable CFGM was used to assess community college freshman students' perceptions of in-class faculty gender microaggressions, and was calculated using the total score

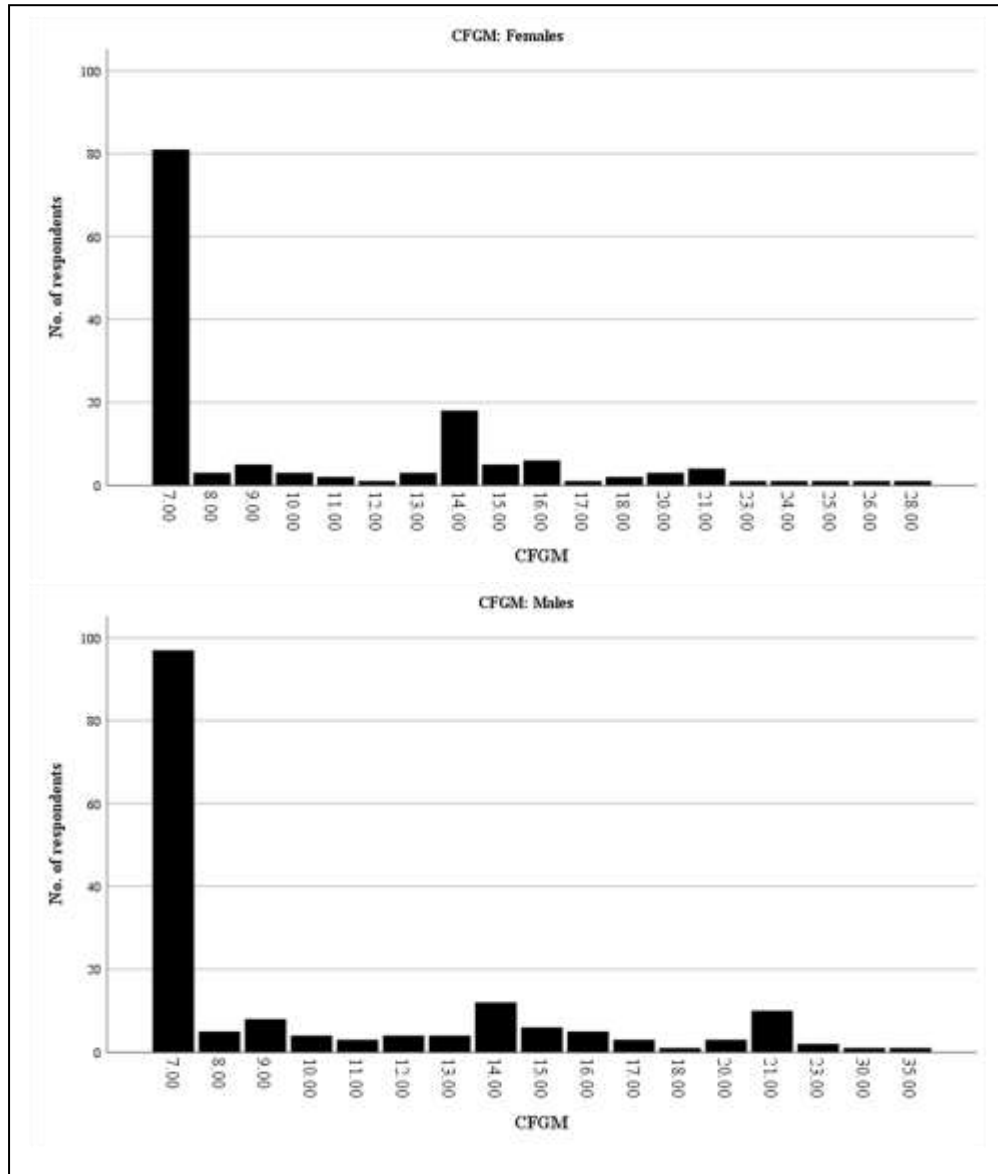


Figure 6. Chart showing female (n = 142) and male (n = 169) community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggressions by faculty inside the classroom (CFGM), ranging from 7 to 28 for females, and 7 to 35 for males. The figure presents a graphical display of the number of respondents per CFGM score. CFGM scores > 21 indicate participants "sometimes," or "regularly" perceived faculty in-class racial microaggression; CFGM scores < 21 indicate participants "never" perceived faculty in-class racial microaggression. Participants with CFGM scores of 21 remained neutral.

of participants' responses to seven questions, scored on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = "strongly disagree", 2 = "disagree", 3 = "neutral", 4 = "agree", 5 = "strongly agree"). The measure was derived from participants' responses on a slightly modified version of the Microaggression Against Women Scale (MAWS) that was developed and validated by Owen, Tao, and Rodolfa (2010). It was expected that the CFGM scores would be strongly related to participants' scores on the MAWS. The researcher therefore administered both the MAWS-C and MAWS scales to participants in one sitting, and then examined whether there was a relationship between CFGM and MAWS scores. A Spearman rank correlation analysis was conducted to examine whether there was a relationship between CFGM scores and MAWS scores. The results revealed a moderate, positive relationship that was statistically significant at alpha .05 ($r_s = .62$, $N = 311$, $p = .00$). These results indicated that CFGM and MAWS scores tended to increase and decrease together. Squaring the r_s value suggested a 38.4% overlap between CFGM scores and MAWS scores. In other words, MAWS scores explained about 38% of the variation in CFGM scores. In addition, CFGM had excellent internal consistency for the current sample of $\alpha = .94$, indicating that the test measured what it was supposed to measure.

CFGM scores for female participants ranged from 7 to 28, with a median score of 7, and CFGM scores for male participants ranged from 7 to 35, with a median score of 7. The distributions for both females and males were also positively skewed: 1.39 ($SE = .203$) for females, and 1.76 for males ($SE = .187$). A Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$) and a visual inspection of the respective bar charts (see Figure 6) revealed that scores for community college students' perceptions of in-class faculty gender microaggressions were non-normally distributed for both female and male participants.

Hypothesis 6 (H₀₆): *There is no statistically significant difference at alpha .05 between female community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and male community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFGM,*

A Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to examine whether there was a statistically significant difference between female community college freshmen and male community college freshmen in relation to their perception of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom. The median CFGM value was 7 for both females and males. The test revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between female and male perceptions of faculty classroom gender microaggression (Mann-Whitney $U = 11868$, $n_1 = 142$, $n_2 = 169$, $p = .85$, two-tailed), at a significance level of alpha .05. The null hypothesis was therefore not rejected, and it was concluded that female and male community college freshmen similarly perceived faculty classroom gender microaggression.

Perceptions of Faculty Classroom Microaggressions and Students' Intent to Persist

Hypothesis 7 (H₀₇): *There is no statistically significant relationship at alpha .05 between White community college freshmen's perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFREM, and their intent to persist at the community college, as measured by STIP.*

A Spearman correlation analysis was conducted to examine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between White community college freshmen's perceptions of faculty racial microaggression in the classroom (CFREM), and their intent to persist (STIP). The results indicated that there was no statistically significant relationship at alpha .05 between White

community college freshmen's perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, and their intent to persist at the community college ($r_s = -.05$, $N = 94$, $p = .64$). The null hypothesis was therefore not rejected, and it was concluded that White community college freshmen's perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom was not related to their intent to persist at the community college.

Hypothesis 8 (H₀₈): *There is no statistically significant relationship at alpha .05 between non-White community college freshmen's overall perceptions of racial microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFREM, and their intent to persist at the community college, as measured as STIP.*

A Spearman correlation analysis was conducted to examine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between non-White community college freshmen's overall perceptions of faculty racial microaggression in the classroom (CFREM), and their intent to persist (STIP). The results indicated a statistically significant and negative—though extremely weak—relationship between CFREM and STIP for non-White community college freshmen in general ($r_s = -.14$, $N = 217$, $p = .036$) at a significance level of alpha .05. The results indicated that CFREM and STIP scores for non-Whites tended to move in opposite directions: high rankings of perceived racial microaggression correlated with low rankings of students' intent to persist. However, squaring the r_s value suggested that there was only a 2% overlap between CFREM scores and STIP scores. In other words, CFREM scores explained only about 2% of the variation in STIP scores for non-White community college students.

Hypothesis 9 (H₀₉): *There is no statistically significant relationship at alpha .05 between non-White community college freshmen's perceptions, by individual racial groups, of racial*

microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFREM, and their intent to persist at the community college, as measured by STIP.

Spearman correlation analyses were conducted to examine whether there were statistically significant relationships between non-White community college freshmen's perceptions of faculty racial microaggression in the classroom (CFREM) and their intent to persist (STIP), by individual racial groups. The results indicated that there was no statistically significant relationship between perceptions of faculty racial microaggression in the classroom and students' intent to persist for Black/African American ($r_s = -.08$, $N = 59$, $p = .57$), and Hispanic/Latino/a community college freshmen ($r_s = -.14$, $N = 138$, $p = .09$), at alpha .05. However, the results indicated a moderate and negative relationship that was statistically significant between STIP and CFREM for Asian/Pacific Islander participants ($r_s = -.59$, $N = 19$, $p = .015$). In other words, CFREM and STIP scores for Asian/Pacific Islanders tended to move in opposite directions: high rankings of perceived racial microaggression correlated with low rankings of students' intent to persist. Squaring the r_s value suggested a 34.8% overlap between CFREM scores and STIP scores for these students. In other words, CFREM scores explained about 35% of the variation in STIP scores for Asian/Pacific Islander community college students. Note that no meaningful results could be calculated for the single American Indian/Alaskan Native participant.

Hypothesis 10 (H_{013}): *There is no statistically significant relationship at alpha .05 between female community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFGM, and their intent to persist at the community college, as measured by STIP.*

A Spearman correlation analysis was conducted to examine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between female community college freshmen's perceptions of faculty gender microaggression in the classroom (CFGM), and their intent to persist (STIP). The results revealed a statistically significant—though weak—relationship ($r_s = -0.25$, $N = 142$, $p = .002$) between female community college freshmen's perceptions of faculty gender microaggression in the classroom and their intent to persist, at a significance level of alpha .05. In other words, CFGM and STIP scores for female students tended to move in opposite directions: high rankings of perceived gender microaggression correlated with low rankings of students' intent to persist. However, squaring the r_s value suggested a 6.3% overlap between CFGM scores and STIP scores for these students. In other words, CFGM scores only explained about 6% of the variation in STIP scores for female community college freshmen.

Hypothesis 11 (H_{011}): *There is no statistically significant relationship at alpha .05 between male community college freshmen's perceptions of gender microaggression by faculty in the community college classroom, as measured by CFGM, and their intent to persist at the community college, as measured by STIP*

A Spearman correlation analysis was conducted to examine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between male community college freshmen's perceptions of faculty gender microaggression in the classroom (CFGM), and their intent to persist (STIP). The results revealed that there was no statistically significant relationship between male community college freshmen's perceptions of faculty gender microaggression in the classroom and their intent to persist ($r_s = -0.04$, $N = 169$, $p = .61$), at a significance level of alpha .05.

Qualitative Data Analysis

Qualitative data was collected by asking three brief, open-ended questions at the end of the student survey. The open-ended questions, which were optional, were: (a) “Do you like the way your professors interact with you in the classroom, during your regularly scheduled class times? Why or why not?”; (b) “Please describe a time when you were made to feel put down, slighted, insulted, or inferior by your faculty member inside the classroom, either verbally or nonverbally, and during your regularly scheduled class time. Why do you think that happened?”; and (c) “Please use this space to share any other experiences that you have had with your faculty members, both positive and negative, inside the classroom and during your regularly scheduled class times.” The community college freshmen who completed surveys were not told that they were being asked about faculty classroom microaggression, and were just instructed to be as honest as they possibly could regarding their in-class interactions with their faculty members. Not all participants wrote responses for one or more of the open-ended survey questions. Of the 311 eligible participants surveyed, 262 (or 84.2%) responded to one or more of the three open-ended questions. In some instances, participants’ responses were limited to one word only (such as “never” or “sometimes”). Forty-nine (or 15.8%) of participants did not respond to any of the open-ended survey questions.

The qualitative research question was:

1. What are freshmen community college students’ perceptions of in-class interactions with faculty, based on the students’ race/ethnicity and gender?

Qualitative data from the 262 participants who responded to at least one of the three open-ended survey questions, were coded by the researcher, who looked for: (a) a collection of

instances from the data that suggested themes relevant to classroom faculty-student interactions that included faculty microaggressions; (b) meanings from individual student responses; and (c) patterns in the data. The researcher first read students' written responses several times to get an overall feeling for them, and then initially transformed the qualitative data into quantitative data, as suggested by Creswell and Plano Clark (2018). One way of achieving this transformation is to "define a new dichotomous variable that indicates whether a theme or code is present (scored as a 1) or not present (scored as a 0) for each participant" (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 225). Students' written responses were therefore first coded as: (a) 0—"no perceived faculty classroom microaggression," and (b) 1—"perceived faculty classroom microaggression," as guided by Sue's (2010) taxonomy and themes. There were forty-nine instances (or 18.7% of the 262 written responses to the open-ended survey questions) in which participants' responses were coded as perceiving some level of faculty microaggression in the classroom (see Appendix H).

Microaggression Themes That Emerged From Open-Ended Responses

As noted previously, the researcher carefully reviewed participants' responses to the three optional open-ended survey questions for themes related to students' perceptions of faculty classroom microaggressions, using Sue's (2010) microaggression taxonomy and themes as guides. Emergent themes around microaggression are provided below, followed by a reporting of additional confirming, as well as disconfirming, results. Identifying and reporting on disconfirming evidence helps confirm the accuracy of the data analysis as, in real life, one can reasonably expect to find evidence that diverges from the themes (Creswell & Plano Clark).

Perceptions of faculty classroom microaggression reported. Among participants who answered some, or all three of the optional open-ended survey questions forty-nine (or 18.7%) of

the 262 responses were coded as indicating community college freshman students' perceptions of faculty classroom microaggressions. These 49 written responses were broken down by race as 10.2% Asian/Pacific Islander, 20.4% Black/African American, 51% Hispanic, and 18.4% White/Caucasian. In terms of gender, females represented 55.1% of the 49 written responses in which faculty classroom microaggressions were reported, with males representing 44.9%.

Students' written responses were first categorized as microassaults, microinsults, or microinvalidations (Sue, 2010), and then further subdivided into specific faculty microaggressive themes (see Appendix H). As noted earlier in the study, a microassault is an explicit, violent and often conscious verbal and/or nonverbal attack; a microinsult is a rude, demeaning, and often unconscious communication; and a microinvalidation is an often-unconscious communication that serves to exclude, negate or nullify a person's thoughts, feelings or experiences.

Experiencing microaggressions can have serious physical, emotional, mental, and cognitive effects on the recipients of such microaggressions (Nadal et al., 2013; Salvatore & Shelton, 2007; Sue, 2010), though there is a popularly held misconception that microaggressions may be offensive but cause no real harm (Keels et al., 2017). Such misconception arose because microaggressions were subtle in nature, and were viewed by dominant groups as a normal part of interactions among individuals of different races and ethnicities (Keels et al., 2017). However, as previously noted, such views ignored the *cumulative* impacts of microaggressive interactions on the individual (Keels et al., 2017; Sue, 2010). As such, participants' perceptions of faculty in-class microaggressive behaviors identified in this research study, were taken to be part of the ongoing experiences of non-White and female students with microaggressions in their daily lives, and were not simply dismissed as banal or trivial (Sue, Capodilupo, & Holder, 2008).

For the 49 participants coded as perceiving some level of faculty microaggression in the classroom, the overwhelming majority of responses centered around microinsults, with a number of students describing faculty as “rude” towards them in the classroom. Examples of this include:

“...There are professors who are very rude and don't help at all.”

Hispanic/Latina, female student

“...Some are rude, boring, and don't care about us.”

Black/African American, male student

“Some faculty members tend to be rude but not on a daily basis.”

Hispanic/Latino, male student

Furthermore, two major themes around faculty classroom microaggression emerged from the written responses of non-White and female community college freshmen to the open-ended survey questions: (a) Ascription of Academic Inferiority or Laziness, and (b) Invisibility: Ignoring and Excluding Students' Voices. These are presented below, along with a brief reporting of additional themes that less frequently emerged from the data.

Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness. Among the non-White and female community college freshmen for whom faculty classroom microaggressions were identified, the most common theme that emerged for participants was “Ascription of Academic Inferiority or Laziness.” The overwhelming majority of non-White and female respondents referenced faculty-student interactions that involved faculty putting them down in class, demeaning them, assuming their responses as being automatically “wrong,” assuming they were lazy and unwilling to work hard, or assuming they were academically inferior. In terms of race/ethnicity, the majority of responses that fell into this theme were from Hispanic/Latino students; and, in terms of gender,

female students' responses tended to fall most frequently into this category. Some examples of statements that indicated this theme are given below:

"Some professors bring me down every time I participate on a recitation that made me feel like all of the answers on my mind are wrong."

Asian/Pacific Islander, female student

"A past professor had dismissed something I had said, because it was "wrong." But another student in the classroom said the same thing, and was praised for it."

Black/African American, female student

"In my sociology class my professor kept saying my answer was wrong, although the person after me had the same answer and she said it was correct."

Hispanic/Latina, female student

"I was insulted when [a] professor told us on the first day to drop his class if we're not gonna put in the work."

Hispanic/Latino, male student

"Her [math professor's] attitude toward our understanding of what she was teaching was harsh and made me feel a bit stupid."

Hispanic/Latino, male student

"...Last semester one teacher called me deficient in class."

White/Caucasian, female student

Invisibility: Ignoring and excluding students' voices. The second most common faculty microaggressive theme centered around non-White and female participants' feelings of being overlooked and ignored when they attempted to ask their faculty members questions, or to

respond to faculty members' questions inside the classroom. In terms of race and gender, responses from Black/African American male students were most likely to reflect this theme.

Examples of statements that indicated this theme are given below:

"I was attempting to answer a question that the professor asked the class. I repeatedly answered her question; however, I was not acknowledged. Then another member of the class spoke and she acknowledged him."

Black/African American, female student

"My Spanish teacher would not help me in class; ignored me."

Black/African American, female student

"[Professors] always judging the little I do or never listening to what I want to say."

Black/African American, male student

"My professor sometimes ignores me in class."

Black/African American, male student

"I was made to feel embarrassed by a professor that I've now withdrawn from. I would raise my hand and try to ask for help and he'd ignore me."

White/Caucasian, female student

Other themes. Additional themes around faculty classroom microaggression emerged from the data, albeit infrequently. The first was "Assumption of Criminal Status," in which the faculty member automatically assumed that non-White students were "up to no good," or intended to commit a crime/do something wrong. The example below exemplifies this theme:

“I was taking a picture of the notes to review for the midterm, and the professor said he'll have the FBI at my house because of plagiarism. In front of the whole class.”

Hispanic/Latino, male student

Another minor theme was “Pathologizing Cultural Values,” in which the cultural values and communication styles of non-White and female students were believed by faculty to be inferior to that of dominant White males. An example of a statement implying this theme is given below:

“...I have felt inferior in my beliefs, compared to others in the same instances.”

Hispanic/Latino, male student

When Faculty Microaggressions Were Not Perceived

Sue's (2010) taxonomy and themes guided the coding of participants' written responses to the open-ended survey questions. The majority of community college freshmen's responses were coded by the researcher as not indicating perceptions of faculty microaggressions inside the classroom, using Sue (2010) as a guide. Of the 262 participants who responded to at least one of the three open-ended survey questions, 213 (or 81.3%) were coded as not suggesting students' perception of faculty classroom microaggressions. These 213 written responses were broken down by race as 0.5% American Indian/Alaskan Native, 6.1% Asian/Pacific Islander, 16.9% Black/African American, 43.2% Hispanic, and 33.3% White/Caucasian. In terms of gender, females represented 44.1% of the 213 written responses in which faculty classroom microaggressions were not reported, while males represented 55.9%.

Faculty microaggressions not perceived by dominant groups. As noted by Sue (2010), White Americans' and men's racial and gender realities tended to greatly differ from that of racial minorities and women. As such, per Sue (2010), an individual's view of the world would

shape how s/he filtered data and information. Of the 80 White participants who answered some or all three of the optional open-ended survey questions, 71 (or approximately 90%) were coded as not indicating perceived faculty classroom microaggressions. In addition, 119 male participants who answered some or all three of the optional open-ended survey questions were coded as not indicating perceived faculty classroom microaggressions. These 119 freshman students represented approximately 85% all male participants who wrote responses to open-ended survey questions. These results supported the notion that microaggressions were often not perceived by members of dominant groups (e.g. McCabe, 2009; Nadal et al., 2013; Nadal et al., 2014; Sue, 2010; Syed, 2010), which in this study referred to White/Caucasian and male community college freshmen.

Faculty microaggressions not perceived by nondominant groups. More than three-quarters of non-White and female community freshmen (77.8% Asian/Pacific Islander, 78.3% Black/African American, 78.6% Hispanic/Latino/a, and 78.5% female), who answered some or all three of the optional open-ended survey questions, were coded by the researcher as not suggesting perceived faculty classroom microaggressions. These results appeared to be contrary to established evidence; i.e. to be disconfirming (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Though greater proportions of White and male participants wrote responses suggesting they did not perceive faculty classroom microaggressions, it was still surprising to find that large majorities of non-White and female participants did the same. The researcher therefore conducted an additional analysis to better understand the seemingly disconfirming results, and found that non-White and female students reported perceptions of faculty classroom microaggressions at rates higher than their proportionate representations in the study sample. Percentage of all participants reporting

perceived faculty microaggressions vs percentage of participants in the study sample was: 10% vs 6% for Asian/Pacific Islanders, 20% vs 19% for Black/African Americans, 51% vs 44% for Hispanic/Latinos, and 55% vs 46% for females. Contrarily, only 18% of the total reported perceptions of faculty microaggressions came from White participants, compared to their 30% representation in the sample; and, only 45% of the total reported perceptions of faculty microaggressions came from males, compared to their sample representation of 54%.

Furthermore, non-Whites and females represented larger percentages of participants who reported perceptions of faculty classroom microaggressions, than those who did not. Percentage of all participants reporting perceived faculty microaggressions vs percentage of all participants not reporting perceived faculty microaggressions was: 10% vs 6% for Asian/Pacific Islanders, 20% vs 17% for Black/African Americans, 51% vs 43% for Hispanic/Latinos, and 55% vs 44% for females. In contrast, only 45% of the total reported perceptions of faculty microaggressions came from male participants, compared to their making up 56% of participants not reporting perceived faculty microaggressions, and only 18% of the total reported perceptions of faculty microaggressions came from White participants, compared to their making up 33% of participants not reporting perceived faculty microaggressions. In other words, non-White and female community college freshmen were disproportionately more likely to report perceiving faculty microaggressions inside the classroom.

Summary

The quantitative research questions of this convergent mixed methods study aimed to examine whether community college freshman students' intent to persist was related to their perceptions of racial and gender microaggressions, whether differences existed in the racial and

gender groups' intent to persist at the community college, and in their perceptions of classroom racial and gender microaggressions by faculty, as well as participants' perceptions of faculty-student interactions inside the community college classroom. Responses from 311 eligible participants (46% female; 54% male; 70% non-White; 30% White) were analyzed to determine the extent of relationships—if any—between the variables CFREM (perception of faculty classroom racial microaggression) and STIP (student intent to persist), and CFGM (perception of faculty classroom gender microaggression) and STIP. Differences in STIP, CFREM, and CFGM for the racial and gender groups were also examined. The internal consistency for STIP, CFREM, and CFGM was $\alpha = .73$, $\alpha = .88$, and $\alpha = .94$ respectively.

The result of a Mann-Whitney U test revealed that non-White community college freshmen perceived statistically significantly higher levels of faculty classroom racial microaggression than did White community college freshmen ($U = 6812$, $p = .00$). Additionally, the results of a Kruskal Wallis test (that excluded the single American Indian/Alaskan Native participant) indicated that there were statistically significant differences among community college freshman of different races/ethnicities in relation to CFREM ($\chi^2 = 30.18$, $p = .00$, $df = 4$). Pairwise comparisons using Bonferroni correction for multiple tests revealed statistically significant differences between White/Caucasian and Black/African American ($\chi^2 = 63.42$, $p = .00$), White/Caucasian and Asian/Pacific Islander ($\chi^2 = 79.61$, $p = .001$), and White/Caucasian and Hispanic/Latino/a ($\chi^2 = 42.74$, $p = .001$) at alpha .05. However, the result of a Mann-Whitney U tests revealed no statistically significant difference between female community college freshmen's and male community college freshmen's perception of faculty classroom gender microaggression.

Results of Spearman's rank correlation analyses indicated that there were no statistically significant relationships between CFREM and STIP for White/Caucasian community college freshmen, Black/African American community college freshmen, and Hispanic/Latino/a community college freshmen at alpha .05. However, a statistically significant, negative and moderate relationship existed between CFREM and STIP for Asian/Pacific Islander community college freshmen ($r_s = -.59$, $N = 19$, $p = .015$). Further, a weak and negative relationship that was statistically significant existed between CFGM and STIP for female community college freshmen ($r_s = -0.25$, $N = 142$, $p = .002$). No statistically significant relationship was found between CFGM and STIP for male community college freshmen. The results of Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal Wallis tests also indicated no statistically significant differences between non-White and White community college freshmen, and female and male community college freshmen, in relation to their intent to persist; and among community college freshmen of different races/ethnicities, in relation to their intent to persist.

Two major themes emerged from the written responses of non-White and female community college freshmen, who reported perceived microaggressive behaviors of their professors. The qualitative data were coded using Sue's (2010) microaggression taxonomy and themes as guides, and the researcher was careful not to trivialize participants' experiences with, and perceptions of, faculty microaggressions directed at students. The two themes were: (a) Ascription of Academic Inferiority or Laziness," in which non-White and female participants were demeaned and/or assumed to be unintelligent or lazy; and (b) Invisibility: Ignoring and Excluding Students' Voices, in which non-White (especially Black/African American) students were ignored and treated as if they were invisible. The results from the qualitative data also

suggested less frequent emerging themes like “Assumption of Criminal Status,” in which faculty assumed non-White students would exhibit deviant behavior; and “Pathologizing Cultural Values,” in which cultural values and communication styles of non-White and female participants are treated as inferior to dominant White male cultural values and communication styles.

Finally, Sue (2010) argued that individuals’ views of the world shaped how they filtered data and information. It was therefore confirming that the majority of White and male participants did not perceive microaggressive behaviors on the part of faculty inside the classroom. These results supported previous findings that microaggressions were often not perceived by members of dominant groups (e.g. McCabe, 2009; Nadal et al., 2013; Nadal et al., 2014; Sue, 2010; Syed, 2010). However, it was surprising to initially note that majorities of non-White and female participants also did not report perceiving microaggressive classroom behaviors on the part of faculty members. Further analysis of these seemingly disconfirming results revealed, however, that non-White and female community college freshmen were disproportionately more likely to report perceiving faculty microaggressions inside the classroom (when compared against their representation in the study sample, and among participants who did not perceive faculty microaggressions), than their White and male counterparts.

In chapter 5, the researcher will present a summary and interpretation of the findings, along with a discussion of study limitations. Recommendations for future research, and implications for practice as they pertain to educational leaders at the community college level, will follow. Finally, the researcher will conduct a brief discussion of study conclusions.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

There is not a lot of research on how faculty-student interactions inside community college classrooms influence community college freshman students' intent to persist, as prior research has tended to largely focus on outside-class or informal faculty-student interactions (Grantham et al., 2015; Wirt & Jaeger, 2014). Additionally, most studies have used either a quantitative or a qualitative research approach, though comparing and synthesizing quantitative and qualitative data could provide a more comprehensive understanding of the problem. The results of multiple studies have confirmed that positive faculty-student interactions are critical to community college student success (Chang, 2005; Lundberg, 2014; Wirt & Jaeger, 2014), though research on the effect of in-class faculty racial and gender microaggressions on student outcomes at the community college level is scant. To date, no research has been found that specifically examines how community college freshmen's perceptions of in-class faculty microaggressive behavior might be related to these students' intent to persist.

The purpose of this research study was to first examine the relationship, if any, between community college freshmen's perceptions of in-class faculty racial and gender microaggressions directed at students, and community college students' intent to persist, and to determine whether differences existed in the racial and gender groups' intent to persist at the community college, and in their perceptions of classroom racial and gender microaggressions by faculty. The study also explored freshman students' perceptions of their experiences with classroom faculty-student interactions, using a convergent mixed-methods approach to inquiry. For the purpose of this study, a community college student's intent to persist beyond the

freshman year was measured using the Institutional Commitment (IC) and Degree Commitment (DC) sub-scales of the College Persistence Questionnaire (CPQ/CPQ-V2; Beck & Davidson, 2010; Davidson et al., 2009), which aimed to predict student attrition—that is, whether the student returned to his/her institution for the second year.

A final study purpose was to discover implications for practice for faculty, educational leaders, and other practitioners.

Summary of the Findings

The quantitative findings revealed that there was no significant difference in the intent to persist of White vs non-White and male vs female community college freshmen. In addition, community college freshmen of different races were equally likely to demonstrate intent to persist. In other words, all racial and gender groups indicated similar intent to persist beyond the first year (fall and spring semesters) of their community college experience.

However, this did not hold true for community college freshmen's perceptions of faculty racial microaggression in the classroom. Non-White community college students perceived statistically significantly higher levels of faculty classroom racial microaggression than did White community college freshmen, at alpha .05. In addition, the perception of faculty classroom racial microaggression significantly differed among the races, with Black/African American community college freshmen, Asian/Pacific Islander community college freshmen, and Hispanic/Latino/a community college freshmen significantly more likely to perceive faculty classroom racial microaggression, when compared to their White/Caucasian counterparts.

Notwithstanding the above, non-White community college freshmen's overall perception of faculty classroom racial microaggression was only very weakly related to their intent to

persist, though the relationship was statistically significant at alpha .05. When the data were disaggregated, it was found that the relationship between individual racial minorities' perceptions of faculty classroom racial microaggression was only statistically significantly related to intent to persist for Asian/Pacific Islander students. No statistically significant relationships were found to exist between perceptions of faculty racial microaggression in the classroom, and students' intent to persist, for Black/African American and Hispanic/Latino/a community college freshmen.

In terms of perceptions of faculty classroom gender microaggressions, the findings revealed no statistically significant difference in perception between female and male community college freshmen. Nonetheless, female community college freshmen's perception of faculty gender microaggression in the classroom was significantly and negatively related to their intent to persist at alpha .05, though the relationship was weak. In other words, high rankings of perceived gender microaggression correlate with low rankings of students' intent to persist. In contrast, no significant relationship was found to exist between male community college freshmen's perception of gender microaggression on the part of faculty inside the classroom, and their intent to persist.

Two hundred and sixty-two community college freshmen wrote responses to at least one of the three open-ended survey questions. Some of their responses were confined to one-word answers, such as "never," and "sometimes." Among participants who answered some, or all three of the optional open-ended survey questions, forty-nine (or 18.7%) wrote responses about their perceptions of microaggressive behaviors on the part of faculty inside the classroom. Two major themes around faculty classroom microaggression directed at students emerged from these

responses. These were: (a) Ascription of Academic Inferiority or Laziness, and (b) Invisibility: Ignoring and Excluding Students' Voices. Racial minority community college students and female community college students were most likely to express feeling put down and demeaned by faculty members inside the community college classroom. Hispanic/Latino and female students tended to fall most frequently into this category. In terms of invisibility, Black/African American students—especially Black males—tended to feel mostly ignored and excluded by faculty inside the community college classroom. Furthermore, other minor themes also emerged from the qualitative data collected from the open-ended survey responses submitted by the 49 participants who perceived faculty microaggressions. These included: (a) assumption of criminal status, in which non-White participants felt that they were treated as suspicious; and (b) pathologizing cultural values, in which non-White and female community college students felt that their cultural values and communication styles were treated by faculty as being inferior to that of dominant White males.

Two hundred and thirteen community college freshmen wrote responses that did not suggest perceptions of faculty microaggressive behaviors. Among these, approximately 90% of White participants and 85% of male participants who responded to the open-ended survey questions did not perceive faculty microaggressions. As noted by Sue (2010), White Americans and males tended to have different racial and gender realities than their non-White and female counterparts, so their lack of perception of faculty microaggressions was not surprising. What was surprising, however, was that more than three-quarters of non-White and female community freshmen, who answered some or all three of the optional open-ended survey questions, did not report perception of microaggressive behaviors on the part of faculty. Nevertheless, further

analysis of these seemingly disconfirming results revealed that non-White and female community college freshmen were disproportionately more likely to report perceiving faculty microaggressions inside the classroom, when compared to their representation in the study sample, and among participants who indicated non-perception of faculty microaggressions.

Interpretation of Findings

The research study examined whether community college freshmen's perceptions of in-class faculty racial and gender microaggressions were related to their intent to persist at the community college beyond the first year, whether differences existed in the racial and gender groups' intent to persist at the community college, and whether differences existed in the racial and gender groups' perceptions of classroom racial and gender microaggressions by faculty. The finding that non-White community college freshman in general—and Asian/Pacific Islander, Black/African American, and Hispanic/Latino/a community college freshmen in particular—were significantly more likely to perceive faculty racial microaggression in the classroom than their White counterparts is supported by prior research (Boysen, 2009; Marcus et al., 2003; Nadal et al., 2014; Nora & Cabrera, 1996; Solórzano et al., 2000; Suarez-Orozco et al., 2015). However, Black/African American and Hispanic/Latino/a participants' perceptions of faculty racial microaggression inside the community college classroom was not related to their intent to persist beyond their freshman year. (No relationship could be calculated for the single American Indian/Alaskan Native participant.) While this finding might initially seem surprising, it can be better understood in the context of prior research, which found that African American students were more likely to interact with faculty than other racial groups, and to work harder because of faculty feedback (Chang, 2005; Kuh & Hu, 2001; Lundberg & Schreiner, 2004; Schreiner,

2004). Nonetheless, Black students reported having the least satisfactory relationships with faculty than other racial groups, due to lower expectations on the part of faculty conveyed by such behaviors as “ignoring their participation, treating them stereotypically, and expressing impatience with their responses” (Schreiner, 2004, p. 562). Still, Black students persisted, and continued to interact with their faculty members, likely because they wished to be academically successful. Furthermore, Barnett (2008) found that higher rates of faculty validation were significantly more likely to predict a stronger intent to persist in college for Hispanic students than for other non-White groups. The finding that there was not a statistically significant relationship between perception of faculty racial microaggression in the classroom, and intent to persist for Hispanic/Latino/a community college freshmen, could be because these students employed strategies, like social support seeking, as a way of coping (Hernández & Villodas, 2018).

Experiences with faculty inside the community college classroom that involve faculty microaggression could lead to hostile and invalidating academic environments for Hispanic/Latino/a, and Black/African American students (Suarez-Orozco et al., 2015). The question arises, therefore, as to what could explain the seeming inconsistency between Black and Hispanic community college freshmen’s greater perceptions of faculty in-class racial microaggression, and their corresponding intent to persist at the community college. Tinto’s (1975) interactionalist model of student persistence would predict dropout (non-persistence) of the community college for these students. However, the findings from this research study suggest that Black and Hispanic students persist in spite of their perceptions of faculty microaggression in the classroom, which did not correlate with their integration into the institution. Sadly,

Black/African American and Hispanic/Latino/a freshman community college students may have simply become accustomed to being treated poorly by faculty inside the community college classroom, potentially viewing such treatment as an extension of their overall treatment by, and experience with racism in, larger society. In addition, participants from these two non-White groups (Black, Hispanic) may have developed coping mechanisms that served to mitigate the effects of community college faculty members' perceived classroom racial microaggression.

For Asian American/Pacific islander community college students, the perception of faculty classroom racial microaggression was statistically significantly more likely to occur than for White community college students, and statistically significantly related to their intent to persist beyond their freshman year at alpha .05. Prior research on faculty-student interactions at the community college level has found that students who identified as Asian/Pacific Islander, and who perceived racial challenges, were significantly less likely than other racial groups to interact with community college faculty (Chang, 2005). Nadal et al. (2014) also found that Asian American students tended to report more environmental microaggressions (feeling left out because their race was largely absent in the media, government, and other systems) than other racial groups. Hostile and invalidating messages communicated to Asian/American community college freshmen, through microaggressive faculty-student interactions in the community college classroom, may serve to discourage these students from persisting, and may contribute to their overall feelings of being constantly excluded in larger society.

The finding of no difference between female and male perceptions of community college faculty gender microaggression in the classroom aligns with the results of previous research on faculty-student interactions by gender (Brady & Eisler, 1999; Kuh & Hu, 2001; Tatum et al.,

2013). Nonetheless, female community college freshmen's perceptions of faculty classroom gender microaggression was significantly and negatively related to their intent to persist, at alpha .05. Although the relationship was weak, on the part of female participants, increased levels of perceived gender microaggression by the faculty inside the community college classroom correlated with reduced levels of persistence in the college setting, beyond the freshman year. Also, when female students feel that faculty do not take their comments in class seriously, they tend to report larger than average declines in math ability, degree aspirations, and self-rated physical health (Sax et al., 2005).

Moreover, the theme of 'ascription of academic inferiority or laziness' to non-White and female students, which emerged from participants' responses to the open-ended survey questions that suggested perception of faculty classroom microaggression, is also supported in the literature. This is similar to Sue's (2010) theme of 'ascription of intelligence,' in which a degree of intelligence is assigned to a person of color or a woman based on his/her race or gender. Hispanic/Latino and female (for whom a statistically significant relationship existed between perceptions of faculty classroom gender microaggression and intent to persist) study participants were most likely to express feeling put down and demeaned by their faculty members inside the classroom. However, non-White community college freshmen in general described feeling put down by faculty, which closely aligns with previous research (Boysen, 2009; Boysen, 2012; Marcus et al., 2003; Solórzano et al., 2000; Suarez-Orozco et al., 2015). Common classroom microinsults involve faculty engaging in disrespectful or demeaning language or behavior Boysen (2012); and, when faculty are the aggressors, they tend to publicly shame and talk down to students (Casanova et al., 2018). Solórzano et al. (2000) also found that African American

students report experiencing racial microaggressions in classroom-based faculty-student interactions, through faculty maintaining low expectations of them, even when they demonstrate competence.

The second major theme of ‘invisibility: ignoring and excluding students’ voices’ that emerged from the written responses suggesting perceptions of faculty microaggressions, especially as it pertained to African American students, is also supported by prior research (McCabe, 2009; Solórzano et al., 2000). Solórzano et al. (2000) found that many Black students feel “invisible”—i.e. ignored by the instructor—inside the college classroom. In addition, McCabe (2009) found that Black female students report facing the majority of microaggressive acts inside the college classroom, where their ideas are ignored or discounted. Sue’s (2010) theme that relates most closely to this ‘invisibility’ theme is ‘second-class citizen,’ in which certain groups receive unconscious messages that they are “inferior beings that deserve discriminatory treatment” (p. 35).

Finally, the findings that (a) a large majority of White and male participants did not perceive microaggressive behaviors on the part of faculty inside the classroom, and (b) non-White and female community college freshmen were disproportionately more likely to report perceiving faculty microaggressions inside the classroom, are also supported by prior research (Boysen et al., 2009; McCabe, 2009; Nadal et al., 2013; Nadal et al., 2014; Sax et al., 2005; Sue, 2010; Syed, 2010). Boysen et al. (2009), for example, found that non-White and female students perceived bias on the part of faculty inside the college classroom over their White and male counterparts. Sax et al. (2005), for their part, posited that male students in the U.S. were more likely to identify with, and relate to, their faculty members, who were still largely male. Further,

Nadal et al. (2014) found that White students experienced significantly less frequent racial microaggressions than their Black, Asian, and Latino/a peers, and Syed (2010) found that White students frequently minimized the concept of ethnicity, because they felt too much emphasis was placed on it in college. Per Syed (2010), White students often denied the impact of race/ethnicity in American society, preferring to argue in favor of a so-called colorblind society. Sue (2010) includes “color blindness” among his themes, arguing that this occurs when “a White person does not want to acknowledge race” (p. 32).

Limitations of the Study

The study had several limitations to generalizability that must be considered when interpreting the results. The first limitation is that measures used in this study collected self-reported, retrospective data from student participants, and was based on students’ perceptions of their interactions with faculty members inside the community college classroom. Although students were explicitly instructed to consider their interactions with all their community college faculty when filling out the survey, it was clear from some of the written responses on the open-ended portion of the survey that at least some students based their responses on their perceptions of the faculty member who taught the class in which the survey was administered. The second limitation is related to the first: the mostly full-time faculty members who agreed to having the survey administered to students during their class times were those who were clearly open to having an outsider informally observe, and evaluate, their faculty-student classroom interactions. As such, participants’ overwhelming feelings of positivity towards their community college faculty may be partially or mostly reflective of their feelings of positivity towards the faculty members who allowed surveys to be administered during class times. It is possible that online

administration of the survey, or administration of the survey in classes taught by adjunct faculty members (who work part-time and receive little to no benefits), might have yielded different results.

A third limitation has to do with the trustworthiness of the qualitative data collected from the open-ended survey questions. For this research, paper surveys were administered during class times, which meant that students had to hand-write their written responses to the open-ended survey questions. Though some students took the time to write detailed written responses, the majority wrote shorter responses. In addition, many students simply skipped some, or all, of the open-ended questions. Some students also verbalized during survey administration in the classrooms that the survey itself was “long;” and, a few faculty members encouraged their students to hurry through the written responses, as they wanted to minimize the amount of class time dedicated to the survey administration. It is possible that online administration of the survey, which would have allowed students to type their responses to the open-ended questions, might have provided more in-depth responses and thus yielded better qualitative results. A final limitation is that data was collected from a single, medium-sized community college in the Northeast, which may make it difficult to generalize the findings to students at other community colleges of different sizes and in different U.S. regions, or to other undergraduate students enrolled in four-year institutions of higher education.

Recommendations

Several recommendations for future research arise from the current study. The first recommendation is that a replication of the study should include in-depth, semi-structured interviews with study participants, in order to gain a deeper understanding of non-White and

female community college students' experiences with faculty microaggressions inside the classroom. While the "questionnaire variant" format of the convergent mixed methods design used in the current study had the advantage of allowing the researcher to collect both quantitative and qualitative data from study participants at one sitting, in-depth interviews with participants would have allowed the researcher to better explore participants' lived experiences, and the meanings they ascribed to classroom faculty-student interactions that involved microaggressive faculty behaviors. Further, conducting in-depth interviews would have allowed the researcher to validate qualitative research findings with study participants, once descriptions and themes were identified (Creswell, 2013).

A second recommendation for future research would be to determine how non-White and female community college freshmen employed coping mechanisms to lessen the effects of perceived faculty racial and gender microaggressions in the classroom, as well as the types of coping mechanisms used. Hernández and Villodas (2018), for example, found that students who used social support seeking as a coping strategy, reported feeling more committed to college completion. Obtaining social support can act as a buffer against stress brought on from experiencing microaggression, can validate the victim's worldview, can help prevent feelings of isolation and loneliness, and can help provide strategies on how to respond to future experiences with microaggression (Hernández & Villodas, 2018; Sue, 2010).

Wong et al. (2014) however argued that there were still gaps in our understanding of how coping strategies served to mitigate racial microaggression. The current study found that non-White students were more likely to perceive in-class faculty racial microaggression than their White counterparts. However, there was no relationship between such perceptions and the intent

to persist for Black/African American and Hispanic/Latino/a students, and a moderate relationship for Asian/Pacific Islander students. For female students, the perception of faculty gender microaggression was also weakly related to their intent to persist. These findings suggest that non-White and female community college freshmen potentially employed coping strategies (consciously or subconsciously), that served to mitigate the effects of the perceived faculty classroom microaggressions. Future research could provide insights into the coping strategies employed by community college freshmen, as well as how these students applied such mitigating coping mechanisms.

Several practical recommendations for community college and other educational leaders also arise from the current study. Since increasing retention and completion rates for community college students can be challenging and costly (Belfield, Crosta, & Jenkins, 2013), the first recommendation is that the IC/DC subscales of the College Persistence Questionnaire (CPQ) be administered to all community college freshmen. This would provide a simple and low-cost way of gauging which students are at risk of dropping out and which students intend to persist beyond their first year. Davidson et al. (2009) found that Institutional Commitment was the single best and most reliable predictor of retention, and that Institutional Commitment and Degree Commitment scores were found to be fairly stable over time.

A second recommendation would be that the CB-REMA and MAWS-C scales (which were modified from the original SB-REMA (Keels et al., 2017) and MAWS (Owen et al., 2010) scales to make them more relevant to the college classroom experience), be annually administered to second-semester community college freshmen, in order to gauge if and how student perceptions of faculty classroom microaggressions change over time. Educational leaders

may also use the results to design and provide additional supports for non-White and female community college students who may feel unwelcomed, demeaned, or ignored by faculty inside the community college classroom.

Lastly, specific training and professional development opportunities on effective and appropriate faculty-student classroom interactions should be offered to community college faculty. Community college professors—full-time and part-time alike—should be provided with strategies that help broaden their teaching methods and course content, in order to reflect multiple perspectives. Such inclusive classroom and curriculum practices would serve to foster more welcoming and supportive classroom environments, and would help minimize faculty microaggressive behaviors inside community college classrooms.

Implications for Practice

Community college freshman from all racial and gender groups indicate strong overall intent to persist beyond their first year. Per Tinto's (1975) interactionalist model of student persistence, freshman students initially arrived at the community college with various family backgrounds, individual attributes, and pre-college experiences that influenced their initial commitments to the goal of graduation and to the institution. However, as students interacted with the institution's academic systems, their levels of integration served to influence their subsequent commitment to the institution and to their goal of graduating from college. The overall positive intent to persist scores of the second-semester community college freshmen who took part in this study implies that these students experienced some level of integration into the Northeastern Community College, regardless of their race or gender. Additionally, the community college freshmen's general perceptions of positive faculty-student interactions inside

the classroom likely contributed to their overall desire to persist beyond the first year. Prior research has found that community college persistence is related to measures of academic integration (Deil-Amen, 2005; Halpin, 1990; Pascarella and Chapman, 1983).

The implication for educational practice is clear: positive classroom environments strengthen community college freshmen's integration into the institution, and positively influence their desire to persist towards degrees and at the institution. Unfortunately, however, the community college classroom is often overlooked in educational research (Grantham et al., 2015; Wirt & Jaeger, 2014). It therefore behooves educational leaders and policymakers to create policies and procedures that support positive classroom environments, and to allocate resources for faculty professional development in creating positive classroom climates.

Community college classrooms, however, are not immune from faculty-student interactions that are perceived by non-White community college freshmen as being microaggressive on the part of the faculty. Policies that require the inclusion of questions to gauge community college students' perceptions of faculty classroom microaggressions on student evaluations of individual faculty members—both full-time and part-time—might go a long way in improving the community college classroom climate for non-White students. Furthermore, an additional implication for policymakers and educational leaders is that assessing racial minority and female community college freshmen's perceptions of all their interactions with college faculty, staff, and administrators, both inside and outside the classroom, could be a worthwhile step towards improving the general campus climate for these students.

A final study implication for educational leaders is the importance of raising faculty awareness on how their words and acts inside the community college classroom might be

perceived as being microaggressive by non-White students in particular. Prior research has shown that experiencing microaggressions can have deleterious effects on students' mental, physical, and emotional health (Boysen, 2012), and can disrupt cognitive functioning for African American students (Salvatore & Shelton, 2007). Though the relationship between the perception of faculty classroom microaggressions and community college freshmen's intent to persist was weak or moderate (female and Asian/Pacific Islander students respectively), or non-significant (Black/African American and Hispanic/Latino/a students), the fact still remains that these students' perceptions of microaggressions inside the classroom may still have negative mental and psychological consequences for them. Educational leaders are obligated to protect not just the physical, but also the mental and emotional well-being of the community college students they serve.

Conclusions

While great strides have been made in reducing explicit forms of bias and discrimination in society, much less success has been achieved in eradicating covert or implicit—and often unconscious—forms of bias and discrimination (Beck, 2017; Embrick et al., 2017; Sue, 2010). Microaggressions, which are most often implicit in nature, result from “ongoing interactions between perpetrators and recipients” (Sue, 2010, p. 9): in this case, community college faculty and non-White and female community college freshmen. Since community college students most frequently interact with faculty inside the classroom (Chang, 2005; Lundberg, 2014; McClenney & Peterson, 2006; Wirt & Jaeger, 2014), the community college classroom is an especially important place where these students' integration into the institution occurs.

The study findings that (a) non-White community college freshmen are statistically significantly more likely to perceive in-class faculty racial microaggression than White community college freshman; that (b) Asian/Pacific Islander, Black/African American, and Hispanic/Latino/a community college freshmen are statistically significantly more likely to perceive in-class faculty racial microaggression than White community college freshman; that (c) Asian/Pacific Islander community college freshmen are more sensitive to perceptions of faculty classroom racial microaggression than other racial groups in relation to their intent to persist; that (d) female community college freshmen are more sensitive to perceptions of faculty classroom gender microaggression than male community college freshmen in relation to their intent to persist; that (e) Hispanic/Latino and female community college freshmen are more likely to report feeling put down and demeaned by their faculty members; that (f) Black/African American community college freshmen are more likely to report being ignored, excluded and generally made to feel invisible by faculty inside the classroom; and that (g) White and male community college freshmen do not generally perceive faculty microaggressions, are not surprising. Community college classrooms are simply microcosms of larger society, in which people of color and women experience daily and subtle acts of microaggression, as well as blatant racism and sexism. The status quo that leaves faculty classroom microaggressions unchecked is unacceptable. Educational leaders must do whatever it takes to hold themselves, and their faculty members, responsible and accountable for classroom interactions with students that are free of implicit bias and discrimination, faculty microaggressive behaviors, and—heaven forbid—blatant acts of racism and sexism on the part of faculty.

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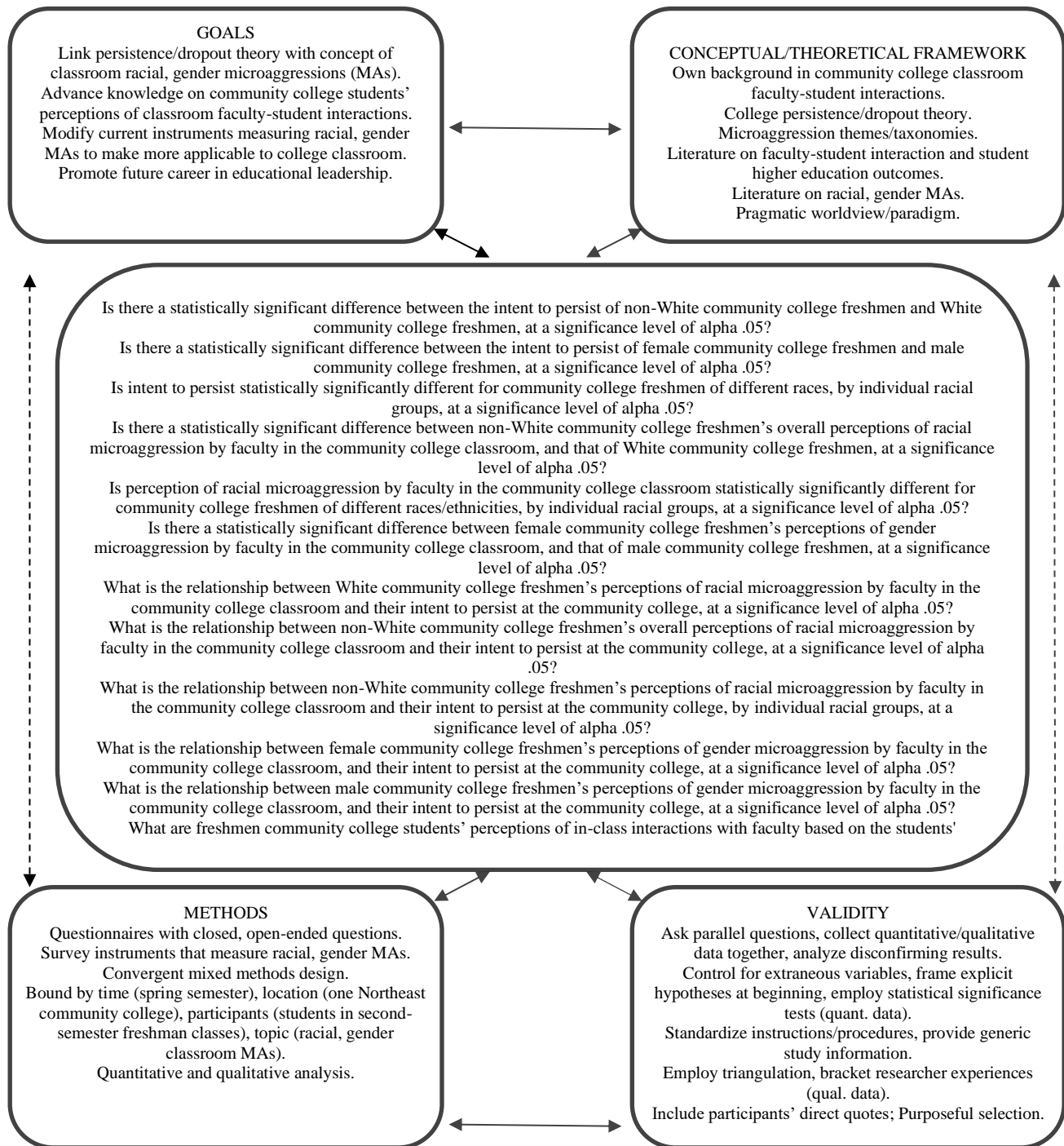
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Appendix A: Concept Map



Concept Map. The figure visually presents the design of the study, and illustrates the interactions among the concepts of classroom faculty-student interaction, persistence theory and racial/ethnic/gender microaggressions. Adapted from *Qualitative Research Design: An Interactive Approach* (p. 5), by J. Maxwell, 2013, Thousand Oaks, CA: S. Copyright © 2013 by SAGE Publications,

Appendix B: School-Based Racial and Ethnic Microaggression Scale (SB-REMA)

Keels, M., Durkee, M., & Hope, E. (2017). The Psychological and Academic Costs of School-Based Racial and Ethnic Microaggressions. *American Educational Research Journal*

School-Based Racial and Ethnic Microaggressions

Used “school” for high school students and “campus” for college students
Academic Inferiority Microaggressions

Used “race” for Black students and “ethnicity” for Latinx students.

How often have you had any of the following experiences/feelings during this past academic year?

Revised rating scale: Never = 1, Sometimes = 2, Regularly = 3

Academic Inferiority Microaggressions

1. I experienced discouragement at school in pursuing my academic or educational goals because of my race/ethnicity
2. People at school made me feel intellectually inferior because of my race/ethnicity
3. I felt excluded by others at school because of my race/ethnicity
4. I felt my classroom contributions were minimized or dismissed because of my race/ethnicity
5. I have been made to feel like the way I speak is inferior in the classroom because of my race/ethnicity
6. I experienced feelings of isolation at school because of my race/ethnicity
7. I felt that school was informally segregated based on race/ethnicity

Expectations of Aggression Microaggressions

8. People at school acted like they were scared of me because of my race/ethnicity
9. People at school assumed that I will behave aggressively because of my race/ethnicity
10. I was singled out by school police or security because of my race/ethnicity

Stereotypical Misrepresentations Microaggressions

11. People at school acted as if all of the people of my race/ethnicity are alike
12. People at school denied that people of my race/ethnicity face extra obstacles when compared to White people
13. People at school suggested that I am exotic in a sexual way because of my race/ethnicity
14. People at school hold sexual stereotypes about me because of my racial/ethnic background



Ramsay, Sandra <sramsay@my.bridgeport.edu>

SB-REMA--Request for Access and Permission to Use

3 messages

Ramsay, Sandra <sramsay@my.bridgeport.edu>
To: micere@uchicago.edu
Bcc: Sandra Ramsay <sramsay@my.bridgeport.edu>

Wed, Nov 21, 2018 at 7:56 AM

Dear Professor Keels,

I hope this email finds you well.

My name is Sandra Ramsay, and I am a doctoral student at the University of Bridgeport, School of Education, in Connecticut. My dissertation focus is Classroom Faculty Microaggressions and Community College Student Dropout Risk, and I am currently looking at instruments that might be useful in measuring microaggressions specifically for college students.

I came across your study on school-based racial and ethnic microaggressions, depressive symptoms and academic achievement, and wondered if I might kindly:

1. Have access to your complete School-Based Racial and Ethnic Microaggressions Scale, including all questions
2. Be granted permission to use your complete School-Based Racial and Ethnic Microaggressions Scale

Thank you for your kind assistance. I look forward to (hopefully) a favorable response from you. Have a lovely day and a great Thanksgiving.

Best regards,
Sandra Ramsay
sramsay@my.bridgeport.edu
914-355-8011 (cell)

Micere Keels <micere@uchicago.edu>
To: "Ramsay, Sandra" <sramsay@my.bridgeport.edu>

Wed, Nov 21, 2018 at 9:28 AM

Dear Sandra,

Thanks for your interest in our measure. The attached document has additional details regarding the scale.

Best,
Micere

Micere Keels
Associate Professor
Department of Comparative Human Development
University of Chicago

Appendix C: Adaptation of SB-REMA for Classroom Racial/Ethnic Microaggressions (CB-REMA)

Rationale for changes to the School-Based Racial and Ethnic Microaggression Scale (SB-REMA)

(Rating Scale: Never = 1, Sometimes = 2, Regularly = 3)

Type	SB-REMA Question	CB-REMA Revised Question	Rationale for changes
Academic Inferiority Microaggressions	1. I experienced discouragement at school in pursuing my academic or educational goals because of my race/ethnicity.	1. I experienced discouragement from my professor in pursuing my academic or educational goals because of my race/ethnicity.	To reflect classroom context.
Academic Inferiority Microaggressions	2. People at school made me feel intellectually inferior because of my race/ethnicity.	2. My professor made me feel intellectually inferior because of my race/ethnicity.	To reflect classroom context.
Academic Inferiority Microaggressions	3. I felt excluded by others at school because of my race/ethnicity.	3. I felt excluded by my professor because of my race/ethnicity.	To reflect classroom context.
Academic Inferiority Microaggressions	4. I felt my classroom contributions were minimized or dismissed because of my race/ethnicity.	4. I felt my classroom contributions were minimized or dismissed by my professor because of my race/ethnicity.	To reflect classroom context.
Academic Inferiority Microaggressions	5. I have been made to feel like the way I speak is inferior in the classroom because of my race/ethnicity.	5. My professor has made me feel like the way I speak is inferior in the classroom because of my race/ethnicity.	To reflect classroom context.
Academic Inferiority Microaggressions	6. I experienced feelings of isolation at school because of my race/ethnicity.	6. My professor caused me to experience feelings of isolation in the classroom because of my race/ethnicity.	To reflect classroom context.

Rationale for changes to the School-Based Racial and Ethnic Microaggression Scale (SB-REMA)

(Rating Scale: Never = 1, Sometimes = 2, Regularly = 3)

Type	SB-REMA Question	CB-REMA Revised Question	Rationale for changes
Academic Inferiority Microaggressions	7. I felt that school was informally segregated based on race/ethnicity.	7. I felt that the classroom was informally segregated by my professor based on race/ethnicity.	To reflect classroom context.
Expectations of Aggression Microaggressions	8. People at school acted like they were scared of me because of my race/ethnicity.	8. My professor acted like she or he was scared of me because of my race/ethnicity.	To reflect classroom context.
Expectations of Aggression Microaggressions	9. People at school assumed that I will behave aggressively because of my race/ethnicity.	9. My professor assumed that I will behave aggressively because of my race/ethnicity.	To reflect classroom context.
Expectations of Aggression Microaggressions	10. I was singled out by school police or security because of my race/ethnicity	10. Not included.	Not relevant to classroom context.
Stereotypical Misrepresentations Microaggressions	11. People at school acted as if all of the people of my race/ethnicity are alike.	11. My professor acted as if all of the people of my race/ethnicity are alike.	To reflect classroom context.
Stereotypical Misrepresentations Microaggressions	12. People at school denied that people of my race/ethnicity face extra obstacles when compared to White people.	12. My professor denied that people of my race/ethnicity face extra obstacles when compared to White people.	To reflect classroom context.
Stereotypical Misrepresentations Microaggressions	13. People at school suggested that I am exotic in a sexual way because of my race/ethnicity.	13. My professor suggested that I am exotic in a sexual way because of my race/ethnicity.	To reflect classroom context.

Rationale for changes to the School-Based Racial and Ethnic Microaggression Scale (SB-REMA)

(Rating Scale: Never = 1, Sometimes = 2, Regularly = 3)

Type	SB-REMA Question	CB-REMA Revised Question	Rationale for changes
Stereotypical Misrepresentations Microaggressions	14. People at school hold sexual stereotypes about me because of my racial/ethnic background.	14. My professor holds sexual stereotypes about me because of my racial/ethnic background.	To reflect classroom context.

Appendix D: Microaggression Against Women Scale (MAWS)



Microaggressions Against Women Scale

Version Attached: Full Test

PsycTESTS Citation:

Owen, J., Tao, K., & Rodolfa, E. (2010). Microaggressions Against Women Scale [Database record]. Retrieved from

PsycTESTS. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/t19760-000>

Instrument Type:

Rating Scale

Test Format:

This 7-item measure utilizes a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree), with higher scores indicating more perceived microaggressions.

Source:

Owen, Jesse, Tao, Karen, & Rodolfa, Emil. (2010). Microaggressions and women in short-term psychotherapy: Initial evidence. *The Counseling Psychologist*, Vol 38(7), 923-946. doi: 10.1177/0011000010376093, © 2010 by Division of Counseling Psychology of the American Psychology Association. Reproduced by Permission of Division of Counseling Psychology of the American Psychological Association.

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doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/t19760-000>

Microaggressions Against Women Scale MAWS

Items

My therapist made stereotypical comments about women's abilities, traits, or preferences.

My therapist implied that I would be happier if I were in a relationship (or stayed in my current relationship).

Even though my therapist did not make direct statements about women in general, I gathered that he or she had some stereotypes about women.

My therapist encouraged me to be less assertive so that I do not present myself as being aggressive.

My therapist looked at my body in a judgmental manner.

At times, I noticed my therapist staring at my body.

My therapist made jokes or comments that would be offensive to many women.

PsycTESTS[™] is a database of the American Psychological Association



Ramsay, Sandra <sramsay@my.bridgeport.edu>

Microaggressions Against Women Scale (MAWS): Request for Permission to Use in Educational Context

3 messages

Ramsay, Sandra <sramsay@my.bridgeport.edu>
To: Jesse.Owen@du.edu
Bcc: Sandra Ramsay <sramsay@my.bridgeport.edu>

Sat, Nov 24, 2018 at 7:54 PM

Dear Dr. Owen,

I hope this email finds you well.

My name is Sandra Ramsay, and I am a doctoral student at the University of Bridgeport, School of Education, in Connecticut. My dissertation focus is Classroom Faculty Microaggressions and Community College Student Dropout Risk, and I am currently looking at instruments that might be useful in measuring microaggressions specifically for female college students.

I came across your study on Microaggressions and Women in Short-Term Psychotherapy: Initial Evidence, and wondered if I might kindly:

1. Have access to your complete Microaggressions Against Women Scale (MAWS), including all questions
2. Be granted permission to use your complete Microaggressions Against Women Scale (MAWS), or parts thereof, including making slight adjustments to the wording, for the purpose of using the instrument in an educational context

Thank you for your kind assistance. I look forward to (hopefully) a favorable response from you. Have a great evening..

Best regards,
Sandra Ramsay
sramsay@my.bridgeport.edu
914-355-8011 (cell)

Jesse Owen <Jesse.Owen@du.edu>
To: "Ramsay, Sandra" <sramsay@my.bridgeport.edu>

Sun, Nov 25, 2018 at 12:27 PM

Hi Sandra,

Yes, feel free to use the measure and adjust it as you see fit. If you don't mind, could you send me a copy of the adjusted version (and the citation for the adjusted version). I get these kind of requests fairly frequently, so it would be nice to have more measures for researchers to share.

I would be interested to hear what you find, I think (know) that micro aggressions against women are very common place in academia. So, I imagine your study will be well needed for the field.

Let me know if there is anything else I can do to be helpful.

Best,
Jesse

Jesse Owen, PhD. Licensed Psychologist
Professor
Department of Counseling Psychology at the University of Denver
Director of Research for Celesthealth Solutions
Associate Editor: Psychotherapy

Appendix E: Adaptation of MAWS for Classroom Gender Microaggressions (MAWS-C)

Rationale for changes to the Microaggression Against Scale (MAWS)
(Rating scale: from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 strongly disagree))

MAWS Question	MAWS-C Revised Question	Rationale for changes
1. My therapist made stereotypical comments about women's abilities, traits, or preferences.	1. My professor made stereotypical comments about women's abilities, traits, or preferences.	To reflect classroom context.
2. My therapist implied that I would be happier if I were in a relationship (or stayed in my current relationship).	2. My professor implied that I would be happier if I were in a relationship (or stayed in my current relationship).	To reflect classroom context.
3. Even though my therapist did not make direct statements about women in general, I gathered that he or she had some stereotypes about women.	3. Even though my professor did not make direct statements about women in general, I gathered that he or she had some stereotypes about women.	To reflect classroom context.
4. My therapist encouraged me to be less assertive so that I do not present myself as being aggressive.	4. My professor encouraged me to be less assertive so that I do not present myself as being aggressive.	To reflect classroom context.
5. My therapist looked at my body in a judgmental manner.	5. My professor looked at my body in a judgmental manner.	To reflect classroom context.
6. At times, I noticed my therapist staring at my body.	6. At times, I noticed my professor staring at my body.	To reflect classroom context.
7. My therapist made jokes or comments that would be offensive to many women.	7. My professor made jokes or comments that would be offensive to many women.	To reflect classroom context.

Appendix F: College Persistence Questionnaire, Version 2—IC and DC Subscales

CPQ/CPQ-V2 Factor/Subscale	Question	Rating Scale
Institutional Commitment	8. How confident are you that this is the right college or university for you?	very confident / somewhat confident / neutral / somewhat unconfident / very unconfident / not applicable
Institutional Commitment	22. How much thought have you given to stopping your education here (perhaps transferring to another college, going to work, or leaving for other reasons)?	a lot of thought / some thought / neutral / little thought / very little thought / not applicable
Institutional Commitment	59. How likely is it that you will reenroll here next semester?	very likely / somewhat likely / neutral / somewhat unlikely / very unlikely / not applicable
Institutional Commitment	60. How likely is it you will earn a degree from here?	very likely / somewhat likely / neutral / somewhat unlikely / very unlikely / not applicable
Degree Commitment	3. How supportive is your family of your pursuit of a college degree, in terms of their encouragement and expectations?	very supportive / somewhat supportive / neutral / somewhat unsupportive / very unsupportive / not applicable
Degree Commitment	17. At this moment in time, how strong would you say your commitment is to earning a college degree, here or elsewhere?	very strong / somewhat strong / neutral / somewhat weak / very weak / not applicable
Degree Commitment	27. When you think of the people who mean the most to you (friends and family), how disappointed do you think they would be if you quit school?	very disappointed / somewhat disappointed / neutral / not very disappointed / not at all disappointed / not applicable
Degree Commitment	32. There are so many things that can interfere with students making progress toward a degree, feelings of uncertainty about finishing you are likely to occur along the way. At this moment in time, how certain are that you will earn a college degree?	very certain / somewhat certain / neutral / somewhat uncertain / very uncertain / not applicable

CPQ/CPQ-V2 Factor/Subscale	Question	Rating Scale
Degree Commitment	41. After beginning college, students sometimes discover that a college degree is not quite as important to them as it once was. How strong is your intention to persist in your pursuit of degree, here or elsewhere?	very strong / somewhat strong / neutral / somewhat weak / very weak / not applicable
Degree Commitment	58. When you consider the benefits of having a college degree and the costs of earning it, how much would you say that the benefits outweigh the costs, if at all?	benefits far outweigh the costs / benefits somewhat outweigh the costs / benefits and costs are equal / costs somewhat outweigh the benefits / costs far outweigh the benefits / not applicable



Ramsay, Sandra <sramsay@my.bridgeport.edu>

College Persistence Questionnaire--Request for Questionnaire and Permission

3 messages

Ramsay, Sandra <sramsay@my.bridgeport.edu>
To: beckhp@appstate.edu
Bcc: Sandra Ramsay <sramsay@my.bridgeport.edu>

Sat, Nov 24, 2018 at 10:56 AM

Dear Dr. Beck,

I hope this email finds you well.

My name is Sandra Ramsay, and I am a doctoral student at the University of Bridgeport, School of Education, in Connecticut. My dissertation focus is Faculty-Student Classroom Interactions and Community College Student Dropout Risk, and I am currently looking at instruments that might be useful in measuring persistence for college students.

I came across your College Persistence Questionnaire, and wondered if I might kindly:

1. Have access to your complete College Persistence Questionnaire, including all questions
2. Be granted permission to use your College Persistence Questionnaire, or any part thereof

Thank you for your kind assistance. I look forward to (hopefully) a favorable response from you. Have a lovely day.

Best regards,
Sandra Ramsay
sramsay@my.bridgeport.edu

Hall Beck <beckhp@appstate.edu>
To: sramsay@my.bridgeport.edu, Bill Davidson <William.Davidson@angelo.edu>

Sat, Nov 24, 2018 at 12:07 PM

Dear Ms. Ramsay,
You may use the items on the CPQ for your dissertation. However, this permission does not extend to any other use of the questionnaire.

Sincerely,
Hall Beck, PhD
[Quoted text hidden]

Appendix G: Tinto (1975) Interactionalist Model of Student Persistence (Use Permission)

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Title: Dropout from Higher Education:
A Theoretical Synthesis of
Recent Research

Author: Vincent Tinto

Publication: REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL
RESEARCH

Publisher: SAGE Publications

Date: 03/01/1975

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Appendix H: Participants' Written Responses to Open-Ended Questions—Coded as Indicating

Faculty Classroom Microaggression


ID#	GENDER	RACE/ ETHNICITY	Community college freshmen's responses coded as perceiving some level of faculty classroom microaggressions.	MA CODE	THEME
1	Female	Hispanic/Latina	*Whenever I do something wrong I noticed faculty talk down to me and not to me, makes me feel dumb.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
43	Male	Hispanic/Latino	*Some [professors] teach poorly and don't communicate with the students. When there is no form of communication with the students, students fail to learn. *A lot of people failed an exam and the professor said we should all consider changing our majors. *Some professors want the best for you and others just don't care. You can tell which is which.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
46	Female	Black/African Am.	*My first semester was very interesting to say the least. Since I had no clue what Rate My Professor was last semester I took my classes and choose my professors blindly, which I will never do again. Last semester I experienced the worst teacher in all my education history. To the way the professor taught, to the way the professor talked down to the students, I strongly did not like that interaction... *One of my professors is great but she has a very passive aggressive tone while talking to the students and she was the only one that made me feel put down by saying things such as, "I don't care if you guys fail, it's not my problem." As a professor it should be her job to care.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
52	Male	Hispanic/Latino	*No, I feel as if they do not care. *When I asked for help, and they didn't want to give me a chance. Acted like I couldn't do the work.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
54	Male	White/Caucasian	*Of course it depends on the professor, but I have had extremely unprofessional and disrespectful experiences with some of my professors. *I was told that I would fail my class because of my major (art & design). *WCC is not a college. It's a mess that looks like a college.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
57	Female	Hispanic/Latina	*I was insulted when my professor told us on the first day to drop his class if we're not gonna put in the work.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
63	Female	White/Caucasian	*Not at all, because the work isn't online and they don't care if I show up or not. *[I felt insulted] last semester due to my drawing ability.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
65	Female	White/Caucasian	*Last semester one teacher called me deficient in class.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
70	Female	Hispanic/Latina	*My biology professor; he seems keen on making everyone in my class fail and on making us feel dumb. And most of my classmates are people of color.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
76	Male	Black/African Am.	*Only negative experience was a scene analysis paper I was struggling with but the teacher wouldn't teach me the right way to do it, no matter how many times I asked for help.	1	Invisibility: Ignoring and excluding students' voices
78	Male	Hispanic/Latino	*I felt inferior last year by my math professor who was not the best at teaching the class. However, her attitude toward our understanding of what she was teaching was harsh and made me feel a bit stupid.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
93	Female	Hispanic/Latina	*There are professors who are very rude and don't help at all. *It's really sad how I've come across professors asking for their help and all they do is repeat the same thing over and over like they don't hear us. *Normally when a professor is very hard on you for no reason, and you're on your own when they should try to at least explain more specifically what they	1	Invisibility: Ignoring and excluding students' voices

ID#	GENDER	RACE/ ETHNICITY	Community college freshmen's responses coded as perceiving some level of faculty classroom microaggressions.	MA CODE	THEME
			are talking about or teaching, because they tend to make the class harder than how it already is.		
97	Female	Black/African Am.	*The modern languages depart[ment] doesn't have the best interaction skills w/students. My Spanish teacher would not help me in class; ignored me. *My Spanish teacher never answered emails. I transferred in the class bring highly confused. I ended up withdrawing from the class.	1	Invisibility: Ignoring and excluding students' voices
98	female	Hispanic/Latina	*I was insulted by my professor because of my color or because my hair.	1	Microassault
105	female	White/Caucasian	*There is one class that I am one of only a few girls and am the only blonde one so, at times, I feel like my faculty question why I am taking the class.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
107	Male	Hispanic/Latino	*This semester I had this teacher tell the class all of us would most likely fail and that if you studied you'd maybe pass. *A professor said half the class would be gone halfway through the semester. I think of past semester classes and experience but still it's a letdown and de-motivation.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
117	female	Hispanic/Latina	*Some are very rude & don't give a chance, they don't care, which affect us. *I smiled at my teacher & he believed I was making fun of him & called me out. I honestly did nothing.	1	Assumption of Criminal Status
139	Male	Black/African Am.	*Some [professors] are rude, boring, and don't care about us. *One of my professors didn't help me when I asked for help.	1	Invisibility: Ignoring and excluding students' voices
144	female	White/Caucasian	*I guess some of them make me feel stupid so I don't talk to them. *When my car was hit in the parking lot a sexist security guard told me it was my fault & I must've been distracted by a cute person & that I hit the curb...I was in the class when my car was hit. *I don't talk to the faculty here.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
154	female	Hispanic/Latina	*My professor was speaking about one of her friends that worked at Columbia University and mentioned that the school "loves minorities" and the class should look into applying. She also talked about her father's skin being white because of skin cancer. She then added, "Thank God my dad is with a black woman or my sister would be too white."	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
157	Male	Asian/Pacific Is.	*One professor I had last semester for math 135. I think her name was [REDACTED]. She made several inappropriate remarks, and acted very harsh and gave dirty looks towards people of certain ethnicities.	1	Microassault
160	female	Hispanic/Latina	*My Spanish professor has a very bad attitude and makes you feel inferior when asking questions. *I emailed my Spanish professor about a question that I had about a test. A family emergency had occurred last minute and when I emailed her, about it, she sent me a long email trying to make me feel bad about my grades. She then mentioned that a student had asked her that question in front of the whole class...Of course students laughed, but they didn't know it was me.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
168	female	Hispanic/Latina	*Sometimes my professors have been unfair or have set unfair rules in the classroom... *One of my professors told me that I was lying about a subject I wasn't lying about. *My professor told me that I was lying about how many times I had left to use the restroom not knowing my personal circumstances.	1	Assumption of Criminal Status
181	female	Black/African Am.	*I was attempting to answer a question that the professor asked the class. I repeatedly answered her question however I was not acknowledged. Then another member of the class spoke and she acknowledged him. This seemed to be because he was a boy while I was a girl.	1	Invisibility: Ignoring and excluding students' voices
182	female	Hispanic/Latina	*Last semester I felt constantly belittled by one of my professors, where I felt like my voice didn't matter. *Last semester, one of my professors made me feel small. In front of the class she would interrupt me, cut me off, and make me feel embarrassed. I never knew why, but while she was respectful to my classmates she was disrespectful to me!	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
183	female	Black/African Am.	*I have had some less than pleasurable experiences with a professor in the classroom setting. A past professor had dismissed something I had said, because it was "wrong." But another student in the classroom said the same thing, and was praised for it.	1	Invisibility: Ignoring and excluding students' voices
184	Male	White/Caucasian	*I never felt purposely ostracized in class on purpose, only when I say something stupid.	1	Ascription of academic

ID#	GENDER	RACE/ ETHNICITY	Community college freshmen's responses coded as perceiving some level of faculty classroom microaggressions.	MA CODE	THEME
					inferiority or laziness
185	Male	Hispanic/Latino	*One of my profs would single out students who clearly do not understand and make fun of them.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
186	Male	Hispanic/Latino	*During math class my teacher would sometimes make me feel stupid and be annoyed. It would seem if I didn't know some answers.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
189	Male	Asian/Pacific Is.	*Any case where did this happen, it would be my own fault, because I asked something stupid.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
201	Male	Asian/Pacific Is.	*My professor made me feel bad, excluded.	1	Invisibility: Ignoring and excluding students' voices
203	Male	Hispanic/Latino	*I have never really felt put down because I don't let anybody do it to me; or when I see it I'm a man and I stand up for myself every time.	1	Unspecified
204	female	Hispanic/Latina	*There is one professor that acts annoyed when you ask reasonable questions. She may answer in a rude manner that makes you feel dumb. *When I asked the professor nicely to repeat something she said she wasn't. I feel it's b/c she was in a rush, but it was during our lab test.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
216	Male	Black/African Am.	My professor sometimes ignores me in class.	1	Invisibility: Ignoring and excluding students' voices
219	Male	Hispanic/Latino	*There was this one time my professor addressed me about an issue in my paper. I was trying to explain why I got confused and made my mistake. she then said "I have other kids to attend to." Later on during the class she then called me out in front of class sharing my mistake and pointing me out in the class. After class I went to talk to her about the issue had; the issue was because she made the outline wrong online. After I told her she said "Oh that's my mistake. I'm sorry" after she acted rude towards me.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
229	Male	Hispanic/Latino	*I was taking picture of the note to review for midterm, and professor said he'll have the FBI at my house because of plagiarism. In front of the whole class.	1	Assumption of Criminal Status
241	Male	Hispanic/Latino	*I have felt inferior in my beliefs, compared to others in the same instances.	1	Pathologizing Cultural Values
249	Male	Black/African Am.	*Sometimes, should listen out to what people have to say. *Always judging the little I do or never listen to what I want to say.	1	Invisibility: Ignoring and excluding students' voices
250	Male	White/Caucasian	*There has only been one professor that talked down to her students, and lost all respect from her students. It was a waste of class, and gained nothing from it. It was professor [REDACTED]. *Because the professor thought she was better than everyone else.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
251	female	White/Caucasian	*I was made to feel embarrassed by a professor that I've now withdrawn from, I would raise my hand and try to ask for help and he'd ignore me. During exams he would help students individually understand what the questions were asking but walk straight past me or give me dirty looks. This is the only time in my 2 semesters I felt inferior insulted by a professor.	1	Invisibility: Ignoring and excluding students' voices
255	Male	White/Caucasian	*No, because they talk down to students like we're all stupid! *Last year in English class I was told I know nothing about my topic because of me.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
265	Male	Hispanic/Latino	*Some of them (professors) talk down to me. *Some faculty members tend to be rude but not on a daily basis.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness

ID#	GENDER	RACE/ ETHNICITY	Community college freshmen's responses coded as perceiving some level of faculty classroom microaggressions.	MA CODE	THEME
269	female	Hispanic/Latina	*Others (professors) can be rude and aggressive. *In my sociology class my professor kept saying my answer was wrong although the person after me had the same answer and she said it was correct.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
274	female	Black/African Am.	*I felt slightly insulted when my professor thought I couldn't write an essay.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
281	female	Black/African Am.	*Last semester my professor said some mean things about my ability that made me drop the class.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
283	female	Asian/Pacific Is.	*Some professors bring me down every time I participate on a recitation that made me feel like all of the answers on my mind are wrong... *Maybe, because English is my 2nd language. Therefore I cannot express my feelings and opinions fully which causes for them to slightly insult me.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
295	female	Hispanic/Latina	*One faculty made me feel like my questions were dumb.	1	Ascription of academic inferiority or laziness
308	female	Hispanic/Latina	*I was doing a presentation and the professor made a comment which sounded bad. But my peers noticed and it was embarrassing.	1	Unspecified

Appendix I: IRB Approval to Conduct Research


UNIVERSITY OF BRIDGEPORT

APPROVAL OF RESEARCH

March 18, 2019

Sandra Ramsay
College of Engineering, Business and Education
University of Bridgeport

Dear Ms. Ramsay:

On March 18, 2019 a designated IRB member approved the following human subject research via expedited review:

Type of Review: *Initial*
Project Title: A Study of the Relationship between Perceptions of In-Class Faculty Racial/Ethnic and Gender Microaggressions and Community College Student Dropout Risk
Investigator: Sandra Ramsay
IRB ID: 2019-03-01
Funding Agency: *N/A*
Grant Title: *N/A*
Grant ID: *N/A*
IND or IDE: *N/A*

To request continuing approval, you are to submit a completed "UB HRP-212 FORM: Continuing Review Progress Report" and required attachments by February 18, 2020. For study closure, you are to submit a completed "UB HRP-212 FORM: Continuing Review Progress Report" and required attachments by April 18, 2020.

If continuing review approval is not granted before the expiration date of March 18, 2020 this research expires on that date.